

English Translation Style Guide for European Union

Nicolae Sfetcu

MultiMedia Publishing

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Introduction

This Style Guide is intended primarily for English-language authors and translators, both in-house and freelance, working for the European Commission. But now that so many texts in and around the EU institutions are drafted in English by native and non-native speakers alike, its rules, reminders and handy references aim to serve a wider readership as well.

In this Guide, ‘style’ is synonymous with a set of accepted linguistic conventions; it therefore refers to recommended in-house usage, not to literary style. Excellent advice on how to improve writing style is given in *The Plain English Guide* by Martin Cutts (Oxford University Press, 1999) and *Style: Toward Clarity and Grace* by Joseph M. Williams (University of Chicago Press, 1995), and the European Commission’s own *How to write clearly*, all of which encourage the use of good plain English. See also *Clear English — Tips for EU translators*, *Tips on translating from Slovak into English* and *A brief list of misused English terms in EU publications*.

For reasons of stylistic consistency, the variety of English on which this Guide bases its instructions and advice is the standard usage of Britain and Ireland (for the sake of convenience, called ‘British usage’ or ‘British English’ in this Guide).

The Guide is divided into two clearly distinct parts, the first dealing with linguistic conventions applicable in all contexts and the second with the workings of the European Union — and with how those workings are expressed and reflected in English. This should not be taken to imply that ‘EU English’ is different from ‘real English’; it is simply a reflection of the fact that the European Union as a unique body has had to invent a terminology to describe itself. However, the overriding aim in both parts of the Guide is to facilitate and encourage the writing of clear and reader-friendly English.

Writing in clear language can be difficult at the Commission, since much of the subject matter is complex and more and more is written in English by (and for) non-native speakers, or by native speakers who are beginning to lose touch with their language after years of working in a multilingual environment. We must nevertheless try to set an example by using language that is as clear, simple, and accessible as possible, out of courtesy to our readers and consideration for the image of the Commission.

In legislative texts, accuracy and clarity are of course paramount. But legal or bureaucratic language that we might regard as pompous elsewhere has its place in both legislation and preparatory drafting, though the specialist terms must be embedded in rock-solid, straightforward English syntax. In some cases — departmental memos or papers for specialist committees — we may regard ‘Eurospeak’ as acceptable professional shorthand; searching here for ‘plain English’ periphrases wastes time and simply irritates readers.

By contrast, in-house jargon is not appropriate in documents addressing the general public such as leaflets or web pages. Information of practical use, e.g. on rights, applying for jobs

or accessing funding, must be immediately understandable even to those unfamiliar with the workings and vocabulary of the EU. This also means, for example, using short paragraphs, simple syntax and highlighting devices such as bullets. For more information on writing web pages in particular, see the 'Writing for the web' section of the Commission's Information Provider's Guide.

So 'style' is a matter of everyday concern to both authors and translators, for whom we hope this Guide will be a practical source of information and an aid to consistency. We have tried to bring together much that is available disparately in publications such as the Interinstitutional Style Guide published by the EU Publications Office, the Commission's Legislative Drafting Manual and the interinstitutionally produced Joint Practical Guide for the drafting of EU legislation. Needless to say, our Guide does not in any way aim to replace these publications, which are well worth consulting in their own right.

The English Style Guide's current Editorial Committee is: *Lorence Astwood Sarah Butcher Mireille Cayley Tim Cooper (chair) Sue Dunlop John Fallas Fiona Harris Mark Osborne Jonathan Stockwell Julia Townsend Philip Waywell*

All work for the European Commission's Directorate-General for Translation.

Many others have contributed their time and expertise over the years, and even though they remain nameless here, they are not forgotten.

The current edition of the Guide is the seventh. The first was published back in 1982. This seventh edition has been slimmed down considerably, since nearly all the annexes have been removed. Most of the information they contained is now set out more clearly and logically by country in an accompanying document called the 'Country Compendium: A companion to the English Style Guide'.

While we have done our best to ensure that the information set out in this Guide is relevant, correct and up to date, errors and omissions are inevitable. If you have any comments on the content of the Guide, please send them by email to DGT-EN-TERM@ec.europa.eu.

Writing English

GENERAL

Language usage

The language used should be understandable to speakers of British English (defined in the introduction to this Guide as the standard usage of Britain and Ireland). As a general rule, British English should be preferred, and Americanisms that are liable not to be understood by speakers of British English should be avoided. However, bearing in mind that a considerable proportion of the target readership may be made up of non-native speakers, very colloquial British usage should also be avoided.

Quoting text. When directly quoting a piece of text or citing the title of a document, you should reproduce the original rather than following the conventions set out below. However, you should make it clear you are quoting text by putting it in quotation marks or italics or setting it off in some other way. If necessary, you may mark errors with '[sic]' or insert missing text in square brackets.

SPELLING

CONVENTIONS

British spelling. Follow standard British usage, but remember that influences are crossing the Atlantic all the time (for example, the spellings *program* and *disk* have become normal British usage in information technology, while *sulfur* has replaced *sulphur* in scientific and technical usage). Note, however, that the names of US bodies may retain the original spellings, e.g. *Department of Defense*.

Do use a spellchecker, set to UK English, as an aid. Remember, though, to use your judgment and in case of doubt check in a dictionary or indeed this Guide.

ords in -ise/-ize. Use *-ise*. Both spellings are correct in British English, but the *-ise* form is now much more common in the media. Using the *-ise* spelling does away with the need to list the most common cases where it must be used anyway. (There are up to 40 exceptions to the *-ize* convention: the lists vary in length, few claiming to be exhaustive.)

The spelling *organisation* should thus be used for all international organisations, even if they more commonly use the *-ize* spelling, e.g. *International Labour Organisation* (its website uses *International Labour Organization*, while Americans will write *International Labor Organization*). However, following the rule in 2.1 above, the spellings of bodies native to the USA and other countries that use the *-ize* spelling may be retained.

The -yse form for such words as *paralyse* and *analyse* is the only correct spelling in British English.

Digraphs. Keep the digraph in *aetiology*, *caesium*, *oenology*, *oestrogen*, etc. (*etiology* etc. are US usage), but note that a number of such words (e.g. *medieval* and *fetus*) are now normally spelt without the digraph in British English. *Foetus* is still common in Britain in non-technical use.

Double consonants. In British usage (unlike US practice), a final *-l* is doubled after a short vowel on adding *-ing* or *-ed* to verbs (sole exception: *parallel*, *paralleled*) and adding *-er* to make nouns from verbs:

- travel, travelling, travelled, traveller
- level, levelling, levelled, leveller

Other consonants double only if the last syllable of the root verb is stressed or carries a strong secondary stress:

- admit, admitting, admitted
- refer, referring, referred
- format, formatting, formatted

but

- benefit, benefiting, benefited
- focus, focusing, focused
- combat, combating, combated
- target, targeting, targeted

Exception: a few verbs in *-p* (e.g. *handicapped*, *kidnapped*, *worshipped*, unlike *developed*).

Carcass/carcase. Prefer *carcass(es)* to *carcase(s)*, except when citing official texts that use the latter.

Input/output. Avoid the forms *inputted* and *outputted*; write *input* and *output*: e.g. *70 000 records were input last month*.

Use *-ct-* not *-x-* in *connection*, *reflection*, etc. But note *complexion* and *flexion*.

Write *gram*, *kilogram* (not *gramme*, *kilogramme*). However, use *tonne* not *ton* ('ton' refers to the non-metric measure).

Write *metre* for the unit of length, *meter* for measuring instruments.

A(n) historical. The use of *an* rather than *a* before words such as *historical* or *hotel* dates back to a time when the 'h' was never pronounced in these words. While you should now write *a hotel*, *an historical event* is still regarded as acceptable, presumably because the 'h' is still frequently dropped in even careful speech, so you may choose which form you prefer.

Judgment. The European Courts use the form without the -e- in the middle, and this practice should be followed for EU purposes.

Tricky plurals. Follow the list below.

- abscissa > abscissae
- addendum > addenda
- appendix > appendices (*books*), appendixes (*anatomy*)
- bacterium > bacteria
- bureau > bureaux
- consortium > consortia
- corrigendum > corrigenda
- criterion > criteria
- curriculum > curricula
- focus > foci (*mathematics, science*) focuses (*other contexts*)
- formula > formulas (*politics*) formulae (*science*)
- forum > forums *or* fora
- genus > genera
- index > indexes (*books*), indices (*science, economics*)
- maximum > maxima (*mathematics, science*) maximums (*other contexts*)
- medium > mediums (*life sciences, art*), media (*press, communications, IT*)
- memorandum > memorandums *or* memoranda

- papyrus > papyri *or* papyruses
- phenomenon > phenomena
- plus > pluses
- premium > premiums
- referendum > referendums *or* referenda
- spectrum > spectra (*science*), spectrums (*politics*)
- symposium > symposiums *or* symposia
- vortex > vortices

INTERFERENCE EFFECTS

Confusion between English words. Look out for errors involving the pairs below.

- dependent (adj. or noun) > dependant (noun only)
- license (verb) > licence (noun)
- practise (verb) > practice (noun)
- principal (adj. or noun) > principle (noun)
- stationary (adj.) > stationery (noun)

Confusion between English and French. Beware of interference effects when switching from one language to the other:

- **FRENCH > ENGLISH**
- adresse > address
- appartement > apartment
- compétitivité > competitiveness
- correspondance > correspondence
- exemple > example
- existant > existent

- environnement > environment
- indépendance > independence
- médecine > medicine
- messenger > messenger
- négligeable > negligible
- négociation > negotiation
- offense > offence
- recommandation > recommendation
- réflexion > reflection
- représentativité > representativeness
- responsable > responsible
- tarif > tariff

CAPITAL LETTERS

General. In English, proper names are capitalised but ordinary nouns are not. The titles and names of persons, bodies, programmes, legal acts, documents, etc. are therefore normally capitalised:

- the President of the Council, the Director-General for Agriculture
- the Commission, the Markets in Crop Products Directorate
- the Seventh Framework Programme
- Regulation (EC) No 1234/2007 (= *the Council Regulation of 22 October 2007 or the Single CMO Regulation*)
- the English Style Guide

NB: in English unlike in some other languages, *all* the nouns and adjectives in names take capitals (though see chapter 9 on scientific usage).

For more on names, see also chapter 12 on names and titles.

However, for *long names* that read more like a description than a real title use lower case:

- Committee for the adaptation to technical progress of the Directive on the introduction of recording equipment in road transport (tachograph)
- Joint FAO/EC working party on forest and forest product statistics

The general rule is ‘the longer the name, the fewer the capitals’.

Subsequent references to names. If you mention a body or person subsequently in a text, you may truncate the name provided it is clear what you mean, e.g.:

- the [Seventh Framework] Programme
- the President [of the Commission]

Note, though, that the use of initial capitals has a highlighting effect, so if the body or person is not particularly important in the context of your text, an ordinary noun phrase may be more appropriate for subsequent mentions:

- The Ruritanian Programme for Innovation and Research focuses on ... The (research) programme is headed by ...

Translations of names. Use initial capitals for official or literal translations but lower case for descriptive translations:

- the Federal Constitutional Court is the German supreme court

For parts of documents or legal acts, see 10.6.

Capitals may also be used to indicate the name of a type of body, legal act, etc.:

- the Commission has several Directorates-General
- It was felt a Directive rather than a Regulation was the appropriate instrument.

However, if there is no risk of confusion or there is no need to draw attention to the name, lower case can be used instead.

Draft legislation. Note that the words *draft* and *proposal* should be written in lower case even in the titles of draft legislation.

State or state? Use initial capitals for *Member States* of the European Union. Use lower case in most other instances:

- state-owned, state aid, reasons of state, nation states, the Arab states (*since ill-defined*), **but** the Gulf States (*defined group of countries*), the State (*in political theory and legal texts*)

Permanent and ad hoc bodies. Permanent bodies (e.g. the Commission Delegation in the United States) require capitals, while ad hoc groups (e.g. the Polish delegation to a meeting) do not.

Seasons etc. No capitals for *spring, summer, autumn, winter*; capitals for days of the week, months and feast-days (*Ascension Day, pre-Christmas business*).

Events. Initial capitals throughout for events such as *British Week, Love Parade, the International Year of the Child, the Second UN Development Decade*. No capitals, however, for *the 2003/04 marketing year, the 2004 budget year* and so on.

Celestial bodies and objects. Since they are proper nouns, the names of planets, moons, stars and artificial satellites are capitalised (*Venus, Rigel, Palapa B*). However, the earth, the moon and the sun do not normally take an initial capital unless they are specifically referred to as celestial bodies.

- The Starship Enterprise returned to Earth.

but

- The daydreamer returned to earth.

Generic terms. Proper nouns that have become generic terms no longer call for initial capitals. We thus now refer to the *internet* and the *web*.

Proprietary names. Proprietary names (or trade names) are normally capitalised, unless they too have become generic terms, such as *aspirin, gramophone, linoleum, nylon, celluloid*. Thus, capitalise registered trade names such as *Airbus, Boeing, Land Rover, Disprin, Polaroid*.

Derivations from proper nouns. When proper nouns are used adjectivally they keep the initial capital (e.g. *Bunsen burner, Faraday cage*). In the case of words derived from proper nouns (such as *pasteurise, quixotic, Rabelaisian*), consult a reliable dictionary, as practice varies.

All capitals. Using all capitals for words in running text has the effect of emphasising them, often excessively so, so should generally be avoided. Writing entire passages in block capitals has a similar over-emphatic ‘telegram’ effect. Use bolding or other devices instead to convey emphasis.

Upper case may also be employed for names used as codes or in a different way from usual, e.g. *VENUS* as a cover name for a person or for a computer server rather than the planet. Where confusion is unlikely, however, use just an initial capital, e.g. prefer *Europa* to *EUROPA* for the web server of the European institutions, since it is unlikely to be confused with the moon of the same name.

Initial capitals in quotations. Start with a capital in running text only if the quotation is a complete sentence in itself:

- Walther Rathenau once said ‘We stand or fall on our economic performance.’
- The American Government favours ‘a two-way street in arms procurement’.

Compass points.

GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES

General. Many place names have an anglicised form, but as people become more familiar with these names in the language of the country concerned, so foreign spellings will gain wider currency in written English. As a rule of thumb, therefore, use the native form for geographical names (retaining any accents) except where an anglicised form is overwhelmingly common. If in doubt as to whether an anglicised form is in widespread use, use only those given in the following sections and in the Country Compendium.

Orthography. Recommended spellings of countries (full names and short forms), country adjectives, capital cities, currencies and abbreviations are given in Annex A5 to the Interinstitutional Style Guide. Geographical names frequently contain pitfalls for the unwary, particularly in texts dealing with current events. Check carefully that you have used the appropriate English form. Examples: *Belén/Bethlehem*; *Hong-Kong/Hong Kong*; *Irak/Iraq*; *Mogadiscio/Mogadishu*; *Karlsbad/Karlovy Vary*; *Naplouse/Nablus*; *Saïda/Sidon*.

Countries/cities. Watch out for the definite article when translating place names from French, as in the following table.

- **Country/territory**
 - **City/town**
- *(au) Gaza* — the Gaza Strip
 - *(à) Gaza* — Gaza
- *(au) Guatemala* — Guatemala
 - *(à) Guatemala* — Guatemala City
- *(au) Mexique* — Mexico
 - *(à) Mexico* — Mexico City

and NB in Spanish:

- *México* — Mexico

- *México D.F.* — Mexico City

Scandinavian/Nordic. When referring to the countries of the Nordic Council, i.e. Denmark (including the Faeroes and Greenland), Finland (including Åland), Iceland, Norway and Sweden, use ‘Nordic’ rather than ‘Scandinavian’ in terms such as ‘Nordic countries’ or ‘Nordic cooperation’.

However, you may use ‘Scandinavia(n)’ if you do not need to be specific, though bear in mind the following points. In its narrow geographical interpretation, ‘Scandinavia’ refers to the two countries of the Scandinavian peninsula, i.e. Norway and Sweden. In practice, however, it includes Denmark and is often stretched to cover Finland. As a cultural term, ‘Scandinavian’ also embraces Iceland and the Faeroes. Note that ‘Scandinavian languages’ refers to the northern Germanic languages, i.e. Danish, Faeroese, Icelandic, Norwegian, and Swedish, but not of course Finnish.

Names of regions. Regional names fall into three types.

- *Administrative units.* Anglicise only those names with translations in the Country Compendium. Other names should be left in the native spelling, without inverted commas.
- *Traditional geographical names.* Anglicise if the English has wide currency, e.g. *the Black Forest*, *the Ruhr*. Otherwise retain original spelling and accents. Regional products are a frequent example:

a Rheinhessen wine, the eastern Périgord area, the Ardèche region (*NB: it is useful to add ‘region’ or ‘area’ in such cases*), Lüneburger Heide

- *Officially designated development areas.* Designated development areas are mostly derived from names of administrative units or from traditional geographical names, often with a defining adjective. Follow the appropriate rule above, e.g.:

Lower Bavaria; the Charentes development area

The name of the cross-border region *Euregio* is written with an initial capital only.

Rivers. Use the forms *Meuse* (*Maas* only if the context is solely the Netherlands) and *Moselle* (*Mosel* only if the context is solely Germany). Write *Rhine* for *Rhein*, *Rhin*, and *Rijn*, and *Rhineland* for *Rheinland*. Also: *Oder* for *Odra* (*Polish and Czech*); *Tiber* for *Tevere*; *Tagus* for *Tajo/Tejo*. Note that the river called the *Labe* in Czech is known as the *Elbe* in English.

If included at all, the word ‘river’ normally precedes the proper name (*the River Thames*), unless it is regarded as an integral part of the name (*the Yellow River*). In either case, it takes a capital letter.

Seas. Anglicise seas (e.g. the *Adriatic*, the *North Sea*, the *Baltic*); *Greenland waters* implies official sea limits; use '*waters off Greenland*' if something else is meant.

Lakes. Use the English names *Lake Constance* (for *Bodensee*), *Lake Geneva* (for *Lac Léman*), *Lake Maggiore* (for *Lago Maggiore*) and *Lake Balaton* (for *Balaton*).

Strait/straits. The singular is the form commonly used in official names, for example: *Strait of Dover* or *Strait of Gibraltar*.

Other bodies of water. Write *Ijsselmeer* (without capital J), *Wattenmeer*, *Kattegat* (Danish), *Kattegatt* (Swedish), *Great/Little Belt*.

Islands. Islands are often administrative units in their own right, so leave in original spelling, except *Corsica*, *Sicily*, *Sardinia*, the *Canary Islands*, the *Azores* and Greek islands with accepted English spellings, such as *Crete*, *Corfu*, *Lesbos*.

Use *Fyn* rather than *Fünen* in English texts and use *West Friesian Islands* for *Waddeneilanden*.

Mountains. Anglicise the *Alps*, *Apennines* (one p), *Dolomites*, *Pindus Mountains*, and *Pyrenees* (no accents).

Do not anglicise *Massif Central* (except for capital C), *Alpes Maritimes* (capital M) or *Schwäbische Alb*.

Alpenvorland should be translated as the foothills of the Alps.

Valleys. Words for *valley* should be translated unless referring to an official region or local produce: the *Po valley*, the *Valle d'Aosta*, *Remstal wine*.

Cities. See the sections on individual countries in the Country Compendium.

Non-literal geographical names. Geographical names used in lexicalised compounds tend to be lowercased, as they are no longer considered proper adjectives: *roman numerals*, *gum arabic*, *prussic acid*. Consult an up-to-date reliable dictionary in cases of doubt.

Compass points. Points of the compass (*north*, *north-west*, etc.) and their derived forms (*north-western* etc.) are not capitalised unless they form part of a proper name (e.g. an administrative or political unit or a distinct regional entity). Hence *South Africa*, *Northern Ireland* but *southern Africa*, *northern France*. Compass bearings are abbreviated without a point (54°E).

Compound compass points. Compound compass points are hyphenated (*the North-West Passage*); always abbreviate as capitals without stops (*NW France*).

COMPOUND WORDS AND HYPHENS

General. Compounds may be written as two or more separate words, with hyphen(s), or as a single word. There is a tendency for compounds to develop into single words when they come to be used more frequently: *data base, data-base, database*.

Use hyphens sparingly but to good purpose: in the phrase *crude oil production statistics* a hyphen can tell the reader that ‘crude’ applies to the oil rather than the statistics.

Sometimes hyphens are absolutely necessary to clarify the sense:

- re-cover — recover; re-creation — recreation; re-form — reform; re-count — recount

The following are examples of well-used hyphens:

- user-friendly software; two-day meeting; four-month stay (*but* four months’ holiday); tonne-kilometre; person-day

In adverb-adjective modifiers, there is no hyphen when the adverb ends in -ly:

- occupationally exposed worker; a beautifully phrased sentence

With other adverbs, however, a hyphen is usually required:

- well-known problem; above-mentioned report; hot-rolled strip (*but* a hotly disputed election); broad-based programme (*but* a broadly based programme)

An adjective formed out of a noun and a participle should be hyphenated:

- drug-related crime, crime-fighting unit; oil-bearing rock

Many phrases are treated as compounds, and thus need a hyphen, only when used as modifiers:

- policy for the long term, *but* long-term effects
- production on a large scale, *but* large-scale redundancies
- balance of payments, *but* balance-of-payments
- policy cost of living, *but* cost-of-living
- index loans with low interest, *but* low-interest loans
- measures for flood control, *but* flood-control measures

Chemical terms. Note that open compounds designating chemical substances do not take a hyphen in attributive position: *boric acid solution, sodium chloride powder*.

Prefixes are usually hyphenated in recent or ad hoc coinages:

- anti-smoking campaign, co-responsibility levies, co-sponsor, ex-army, non-resident, non-flammable, pre-school, quasi-autonomous

If they are of Latin or Greek origin, however, they tend to drop the hyphen as they become established:

- antibody, codetermination, cooperation, subcommittee, subparagraph

Others are more resistant to losing the hyphen:

- end-user, end-phase, end-product, all-embracing, all-metal, off-market operations, off-duty

but note

- endgame, nonsense, overalls

Nouns from phrasal verbs. These are often hyphenated or written as single words. The situation is fluid: *handout, takeover, comeback* but *follow-up, run-up, spin-off*.

Present participles of phrasal verbs. When used as attributes they are generally hyphenated:

- cooling-off period

Avoiding double consonants and vowels. Hyphens are often used to avoid juxtaposing two consonants or two vowels:

- aero-elastic, anti-intellectual, part-time, re-election, re-entry, re-examine

However, the hyphen is often omitted in frequently used words:

- bookkeeping, coeducation, cooperation, coordinate, macroeconomic, microeconomic, radioactive

Numbers and fractions. Numbers take hyphens when they are spelled out. Fractions take hyphens when used attributively, but not when used as nouns:

- twenty-eight, two-thirds completed

BUT

- an increase of two thirds

Prefixes before proper names. Prefixes before proper names are hyphenated: *pro-American*, *intra-EU*, *mid-Atlantic*, *pan-European*, *trans-European*. Note, however, that *transatlantic* is written solid.

Coordination of compounds. Hyphenated compounds may be coordinated as follows:

- gamma- and beta-emitters, acid- and heat-resistant, hot- and cold-rolled products

Where compounds are not hyphenated (closed compounds), or should you choose to write them so, they should not be coordinated but written out in full:

- macrostructural and microstructural changes, minicomputers and microcomputers, prenatal and postnatal effects, agricultural inputs and outputs

NOT

- macro- and microstructural changes, mini- and microcomputers, pre- and postnatal effects, agricultural in- and outputs

(BUT of course

- macro- and micro-structural changes, pre- and post-natal effects)

Closed compounds in technical texts. Some expressions that are written as separate words in everyday language become closed compounds in more specialist contexts, e.g. *pigmeat*, *longwall*. This reflects the fact that in a particular field such expressions have the status of precise terms.

PUNCTUATION

The punctuation in an English text must follow the rules and conventions for English, which often differ from those applying to other languages. Note in particular that:

- punctuation marks in English are always — apart from dashes (see 3.17) and ellipsis points (see 3.3) — closed up to the preceding word;
- stops (. ? ! : ;) are always followed by only a single (not a double) space.

FULL STOP

No further full stop is required if a sentence ends with an abbreviation that takes a point (e.g. 'etc.') or with a quotation complete in itself that ends in a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark before the final quotes:

- René Descartes said 'I think therefore I am.'

Full stops as omission marks (aka ellipsis points). Always use three points, preceded by a hard space. (Key code for Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word, press Ctrl + Shift + Space.) In Word, use Alt + Ctrl + (full stop) to insert ellipsis points. The points are not enclosed in brackets:

- ‘The objectives of the Union shall be achieved ... while respecting the principle of subsidiarity.’

If a sentence ends with an omission, no fourth full stop should be added. If any other punctuation mark follows, there is no space before it.

NB: while in other languages omission marks are sometimes used to mean ‘etc.’, this is not normal practice in English — put etc. instead.

Run-in side heads (you are looking at one). These are followed by a stop not a colon.

COLON

Colons are most often used to indicate that an expansion, qualification or explanation is about to follow (e.g. a list of items in running text). The part before the colon must be a full sentence in its own right, but the second need not be.

Do not use colons at the end of headings.

In British usage, colons do not require the next word to start with a capital. (However, see chapter 8 for an exception.)

Colons should be closed up to the preceding word.

SEMICOLON

Use a semicolon rather than a comma to combine two sentences into one without a linking conjunction:

- The committee dealing with the question of commas agreed on a final text; however, the issue of semicolons was not considered.

You may also use semicolons instead of commas to separate items in a series, especially phrases that themselves contain commas (see also chapter 8 for the use of semicolons in lists).

Semicolons should be closed up to the preceding word.

COMMA

Items in a series Here, the comma may be considered to stand for a missing ‘and’ or ‘or’.

- John mowed the lawn, Mary did the cooking and Frank lazed around.
- He came, saw and conquered.
- The committee considered sugar, beef and milk products.

An additional comma may be inserted before the final 'and' (or 'or') if needed for emphasis (see also below) or for clarification:

- sugar, beef and veal, and milk products

A comma also comes before 'etc.' in a series:

- sugar, beef, milk products, etc.

but not if no series is involved:

- They discussed milk products etc., then moved on to sugar.

Commas also divide adjectives in series:

- moderate, stable prices

but not if the adjectives do not form a series:

- stable agricultural prices

In the second example, 'stable' modifies 'agricultural prices', i.e. the phrase cannot be read as 'stable and agricultural prices'.

Linked sentences Use a comma to separate two sentences linked by a conjunction such as 'but', 'yet', 'while' or 'so' to form a single sentence:

- The committee dealing with the question of commas agreed on a final text, but the issue of semicolons was not considered.

Where there is no conjunction, use a semicolon.

Note that if the subject of the second sentence is omitted, or if the conjunction is 'and' or 'or', the comma is not obligatory:

- The committee dealing with the question of commas agreed on a final text[,] but did not consider the issue of semicolons.
- The committee dealing with the question of commas agreed on a final text[,] and the Council approved it.

In both cases, the considerations set out under bellow apply.

Parenthetic and introductory phrases If a phrase is intended to complement or introduce the information in a sentence and has a separate emphasis of its own, it is set off by a comma, or by a pair of commas if inside the sentence:

- Mindful of the need to fudge the issue, the committee on commas never came to a conclusion.
- The committee on commas is composed of old fogeys, as you know.
- The committee on commas, however, was of a different opinion.

Note that the sentence must remain a complete sentence even if the parenthetic or introductory phrase is omitted.

Parenthetic phrases may also be created by setting off part of the sentence with a comma (or commas) while retaining the normal word order. Both the following are possible:

- The President was a great man despite his flaws.
- The President was a great man, despite his flaws.

Without the comma, the phrase ‘despite his flaws’ forms part of the statement. With the comma, the phrase complements it, i.e. the sentence retains its sense if the phrase is omitted. The comma is therefore correctly left out in the following sentence:

- Phrases must not be set off by commas if this changes the intended meaning of the sentence.

However, a comma is required if the phrase has a separate emphasis simply by virtue of being moved out of position, for example to the beginning of the sentence:

- If this changes the intended meaning of the sentence, phrases must not be set off by commas.

Note, though, that short introductory phrases need not have any separate emphasis of their own, i.e. they may be run into the rest of the sentence. Both the following are possible:

- In 2003, the committee took three decisions.
- In 2003 the committee took three decisions.

Parenthetic phrases (but not introductory phrases) may sometimes be marked by dashes.

Non-defining relative clauses Non-defining relative clauses are special cases of parenthetic phrases. Note the difference compared with relative clauses that define the preceding noun

phrase (i.e. ‘the translations’ or ‘the translations that have been revised’ in the examples below):

- The translations, which have been revised, can now be sent out. (*added detail — they have all been revised*)
- The translations which (*or better: that*) have been revised can now be sent out. (*defining the subset that is to be sent out — only those that have been revised are to be sent out*)

Note also that the use of ‘*which*’ in defining relative clauses is often considered to be stilted and overly formal. ‘*That*’ reads more naturally. It also helps make the meaning clearer, reinforcing the lack of commas, since it is used as a relative pronoun only in defining clauses. Unlike ‘*which*’, however, ‘*that*’ needs to be close to the noun to which it refers.

Combined uses of commas The uses of commas described above can of course be combined. Worth noting is that an initial comma is not needed before introductory phrases in linked sentences:

- The committee dealing with the question of commas agreed on a final text, but despite the importance of the matter, the relationship with semicolons was not considered.

Avoiding commas Avoid liberally sprinkling sentences with commas, but do so by constructing sentences so as to minimise the number of commas required rather than by breaching the comma rules described above. For example, inserted phrases can often be moved to the beginning of the sentence. Parenthetical phrases can also be rendered with brackets or dashes. Moreover, a parenthetical phrase may not in fact be appropriate. Finally, a complex sentence can be divided by a semicolon or even split into two or more sentences.

DASHES

Dashes vs hyphens. Most users of word processors do not distinguish between dashes and hyphens, using hyphens to represent both short dashes (‘en’ dashes = –) and long dashes (‘em’ dashes = —) commonly used in typeset documents. However, please note that both en and em dashes are available in modern word processors.

Em dashes may be used to punctuate a sentence instead of commas (see 3.13) or round brackets (see 3.20). They increase the contrast or emphasis of the text thus set off. However, use no more than one in a sentence, or — if used with inserted phrases — one set of paired dashes. To avoid errors if your dashes subsequently turn into hyphens as a result of document conversion, do not follow the typesetting practice of omitting the spaces around the em dashes. In Microsoft Word, the keyboard shortcut for the em dash is Alt + Ctrl + - (on the numeric keypad).

En dashes are used to join coordinate or contrasting pairs (*the Brussels–Paris route, a current–voltage graph, the height–depth ratio*). These are not subject to hyphen rules. In Microsoft Word, the keyboard shortcut for the en dash is Ctrl + - (on the numeric keypad). See also Ranges and 4.20.

BRACKETS

Round brackets. Also known as parentheses, round brackets are used much like commas in 3.13 above, except that the text they contain has a lower emphasis. They are often used to expand on or explain the preceding item in the text:

- ARZOD (an employment service) is based in Ruritania.

Round brackets in citations. Use a pair of round brackets when citing numbered paragraphs from legal instruments, and close up to the article number:

- Article 3(1), Article 3(1)(a), Article 3a(1), etc.

Bracketed sentences. A whole sentence in brackets should have the final stop inside the closing bracket. Do not forget the stop at the end of the preceding sentence as well.

Square brackets. Square brackets are used to make insertions in quoted material. They are also used by convention in administrative drafting to indicate optional passages or those still open to discussion, so do not replace with round brackets.

When translating, also use square brackets to insert translations or explanations after names or titles left in the original language.

QUESTION MARK

Courtesy questions. No question mark is needed after a request or instruction put as a question for courtesy:

- Would you please sign and return the attached form.

Do not use a question mark in indirect speech:

- The chairman asked when the deadline would be fixed.

Question marks should be closed up to the preceding word.

EXCLAMATION MARK

In English, exclamation marks are used solely to mark exclamations, such as *‘How we laughed!’* or *‘What a fiasco!’*, or to add exclamatory force to a statement, e.g. *‘Two million cows had to die!’*, or a command, e.g. *‘Please read this paragraph!’* Exclamatory expressions

are appropriate in texts that directly address the reader or audience, such as speeches or informal instructions, but are usually out of place in formal texts. Note that exclamation marks are not used to mark the imperative as such in English.

Factorials. As a mathematical symbol, the exclamation mark identifies a factorial:

- $6! = 6 \times 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$

Exclamation marks should be closed up to the preceding word.

QUOTATION MARKS

Smart vs straight quotation marks. Quotation marks should preferably be smart ('...') rather than straight ('...'), but not both in the same text.

Double vs single quotation marks. Use single quotation marks to signal direct speech and verbatim quotes, and double quotation marks for quotations within these. You may also use single quotation marks to identify words and phrases that are not themselves quotes but to which you wish to draw attention as lexical items.

Placing of quotation marks. Quotation marks at the end of a sentence normally precede the concluding full stop, question mark or exclamation mark:

- The American Government favours 'a two-way street in arms procurement'.
- Has the Commission published 'A European Strategy for Encouraging Local Development and Employment Initiatives'?

However, if the quotation itself contains a concluding mark, no full stop is required after the quotation mark.

- Walther Rathenau once said 'We stand or fall on our economic performance.'
- This section is entitled 'A new culture of entrepreneurship in the EU: What to do?'

Short quotations. Short quotes of up to four lines or thereabouts are normally run into the surrounding text. They are set off by opening and closing quotation marks only.

Block quotations. Extended (block) quotations should be indented and separated from the surrounding text by paragraph spacing before and after. No quotation marks are required with this distinctive layout.

English text in source documents. An English text quoted in a foreign language text keeps the quotation marks in the English target text. But if a single English word or phrase is put in

quotation marks simply to show that it is a foreign element, the quotation marks should be removed.

Back-translating of quotes. Avoid if possible. However, if you cannot find the original English version, turn the passage into indirect speech without quotation marks. The same applies where the author has applied quotation marks to a non-verbatim reference.

So-called. Quotation marks are preferable to so-called, which has pejorative connotations, to render *soi-disant*, *sogenannt*, etc.

Other uses. Generally, use quotation marks as sparingly as possible for purposes other than actual quotation.

French and German authors tend to make frequent use of inverted commas for nouns in apposition (often programme or committee names etc.), as in *le Conseil 'Agriculture'* or *Komitee 'Menschliche Faktoren'*. It is usually preferable to omit the quotation marks in English and reverse the order:

- the Agriculture Council, the Human Factors Committee, etc.

APOSTROPHE

Possessive of nouns. The possessive form of nouns is marked by an apostrophe followed by an -s. After the plural ending 's', however, the possessive -s is omitted:

- the owner's car
- women's rights
- footballers' earnings
- one month's / four months' holiday (*but* a one/four-month stay)

Note that the apostrophe is never used in possessive pronouns:

- its (*as distinct from it's, i.e. 'it is'*), ours, theirs, yours

Nouns ending in -s, including proper names and abbreviations, form their singular possessive with -'s, just like nouns ending in other letters.

- an actress's pay; Mr Jones's paper;
- Helios's future is uncertain; AWACS's success

The -s after terminal s' used to be omitted in written English, but this is now done only in classical and biblical names, e.g. *Socrates' philosophy*, *Xerxes' fleet*.

Note that some place names also omit the apostrophe (*Earls Court, Kings Cross*). Possessives of proper names in titles (e.g. *Chambers Dictionary*) sometimes omit the apostrophe as well. There is no apostrophe in *Achilles tendon*.

Contractions. Apostrophes are also used to indicate contractions, i.e. where one or more letters have been omitted in a word or where two words have been joined together. Contractions are common in informal texts, but not in formal texts. Examples:

- don't = do not
- it's = it is (*as distinct from the possessive 'its'*)
- who's = who is (*as distinct from whose*)
- you're = you are (*as distinct from your*)

Plurals of abbreviations. Plurals of abbreviations (*MEPs, OCTs, SMEs, UFOs, VDUs*) do not take an apostrophe.

Plurals of figures. Plurals of figures do not take an apostrophe:

- Pilots of 747s undergo special training.

Plurals of single letters. The plurals of single lower-case letters may, however, take an apostrophe to avoid misunderstanding:

- Dot your i's.
- Mind your p's and q's.

NUMBERS

General. In deciding whether to write numbers in words or figures, the first consideration should be consistency within a passage. As a general rule write low numbers (up to nine inclusive) in words and larger numbers (10 and above) in figures. If the passage contains both kinds, however, use either figures or words for all the numbers.

Note that you should always use figures for statistics (3 new officials were appointed in 2002, 6 in 2003 and ...), for votes (12 delegations were in favour, 7 against, and 6 abstained), for ranges denoted by a dash, and for serial numbers (Chapter 5, Article 9, Item 4) unless you are quoting a source that does otherwise (*Part One of the EEC Treaty*).

On the other hand, try not to start a sentence with a figure or a symbol followed by a figure. Either write out in full or, if this does not work, make use of devices such as inversion: *Altogether 92 cases were found ..., Of the total, € 55 million was spent on ...*

Always use figures with units of measurement that are denoted by symbols or abbreviations:

- EUR 50 *or* fifty euros
- 250 kW *or* two hundred and fifty kilowatts
- 205 µg *or* two hundred and five micrograms
- 5 °C *or* five degrees Celsius

The converse does not hold. If the units of measurement are spelled out, the numbers do not also have to be spelled out but may be written with figures: *250 kilowatts, 500 metres*.

With *hundred* and *thousand* there is a choice of using figures or words:

- 300 *or* three hundred **but not** 3 hundred
- EUR 3 000 *or* three thousand euros **but not** EUR 3 thousand

Million and billion, however, may be combined with figures:

- 2.5 million, 3 million, 31 billion

WRITING OUT NUMBERS

As a rule, avoid combining single-digit figures and words using hyphens (a 2-hour journey) but write out instead:

- a three-year period; a five-door car

But note set phrases such as:

- 40-hour week, 24-hour clock

When two numbers are adjacent, spell out one of them:

- 90 fifty-gram weights, seventy 25-cent stamps

Compound numbers that are to be written out (e.g. in treaty texts) take a hyphen:

- the thirty-first day of December, nineteen hundred and eighty-one

Grouping of thousands. Do not use either commas or points but insert thin spaces (Key code for Windows: Alt + 8201. However, this does not display correctly on Commission PCs using older versions of Windows and Office. In such cases, insert a hard space (Ctrl + Shift + Space in Word) and then halve the space width (in Word: Format, Font, Character Spacing,

Scale = 50 %). If this is not practicable, use a normal hard space.) (4 000 000). Note that serial numbers are not grouped in thousands (*p. 1452*).

Billion. The use of *billion* to designate *thousand million* (rather than *million million*) is now officially recognised by the Commission and is standard usage in official EU publications. Leading British newspapers and journals (such as the *Financial Times* and *The Economist*) have also adopted the convention.

Abbreviating 'million' and 'billion'. Do not use *mio*. The letters *m* and *bn* can be used for sums of money to avoid frequent repetitions of *million*, *billion*; this applies particularly in tables where space is limited. The abbreviation is preceded by a thin space (Key code for Windows: Alt + 8201. However, this does not display correctly on Commission PCs using older versions of Windows and Office. In such cases, insert a hard space (Ctrl + Shift + Space in Word) and then halve the space width (in Word: Format, Font, Character Spacing, Scale = 50 %). If this is not practicable, close up with the amount.) (examples: € 230 000 *m*, \$ 370 000 *bn*, £ 490 *bn*).

FRACTIONS

Written out. Insert hyphens in fractions used as adverbs or adjectives but not if they are nouns:

- a two-thirds increase, **but** an increase of two thirds

Avoid combining figures and words:

- two-thirds completed, **not** 2/3 completed

Decimal points. In English, the integral part of a number is separated from its fractional part by a point, not a comma as in other European languages. For technical reasons, however, the EU Publications Office will replace points with commas in English documents that are to appear in the Official Journal of the European Union.

Note when quoting statistics that 3.5 (as in 3.5 %) is not the same as 3.50 or 3½; each decimal place, even if zero, adds to the precision. The non-decimal fraction is more approximate.

RANGES

Written out. When a range is written out, repeat symbols and multiples (i.e. thousand, million, etc.):

- from EUR 20 million to EUR 30 million
- between 10 °C and 70 °C

Abbreviated form. When a range is indicated by a dash (N.B. *use an en-dash*), do not repeat the symbol or multiple if they do not change and close up the dash between the figures:

- € 20–30 million, 10–70 °C

If the symbol or multiple changes, however, leave a blank space on either side of the dash:

- 100 kW – 40 MW

DATES AND TIMES

Dates. Write out the month, preceded by a simple figure for the day, separated by a hard space, (Key code for Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word, press Ctrl + Shift + Space.) e.g. *23 July 2007*. Use all four digits when referring to specific years (i.e. 2007 not '07). However, in footnotes and where space is at a premium, the month can be written as a number (e.g. 23.7.2007). When translating, just for information purposes, a document following another convention, use your discretion but be consistent.

Note that in American usage, *23 July 2007* is *7.23.07* and in the international dating system it is *2007-07-23*.

Avoiding redundancy. If the year in question is absolutely clear from the context, the year number may be left out: *on 23 July 2001, the Committee adopted ... but subsequently on 2 August, it decided ...*

Decades. When referring to decades write *the 1990s* (no apostrophe).

Systems of chronology. The letters AD come before the year number (*AD 2000*), whereas BC follows it (*347 BC*).

CE (Common Era), *BCE* (Before Common Era) and *BP* (Before Present) also follow the year number.

Time spans. Use a closed-up en dash (see 3.19). For the second figure, you should not repeat the century if it is the same, but you should always include the decade:

- 1939–45, 1990–96, 1996–2006, 2010–12

However, the century may be repeated in the first decade of a new century:

- 2000–2008

Note the following patterns:

- from 1990 to 1995 (**not**: from 1990–95)
- between 1990 and 1995 (**not**: between 1990–95)
- 1990 to 1995 inclusive (**not**: 1990–95 inclusive)

Note that *1990–91* is two years. Single marketing years, financial years, etc. that do not coincide with calendar years are denoted by a forward slash: e.g. *1990/91*, which is twelve months or less.

Time of day. Use the 24-hour system in preference to the 12-hour system. Do not use a.m. and p.m. with the 24-hour system.

When writing times, use a colon in preference to a point between hours and minutes, without adding *hrs* or *o'clock*: *11:30*. However, if the original document uses a point, this may be retained for the sake of convenience.

For midnight either write the word *midnight* or use *24:00* (for periods ending then) or *00:00* (for periods starting then).

For duration use *h*:

- The time allowed for the test is 2½ h.

Distinguish *summertime* (the season) from *summer time*, e.g. *British Summer Time* (BST).

ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

ABBREVIATIONS

General. The prime consideration when using abbreviations should be to help the reader. First, then, they should be easily understood. So when an abbreviation that may not be familiar to readers first occurs, it is best to write out the full term followed by the abbreviation in brackets:

- The emissions trading scheme (ETS) should enable the EU to meet its Kyoto target.

If your document contains a lot of abbreviations, consider including a list of them and their meanings at the beginning or end of the document.

Secondly, they should not be used needlessly. If an abbreviation occurs only once or twice, it is best to dispense with it altogether and use the full form. In repeated references, it is also often possible to use a short form instead of an abbreviation:

- The emissions trading scheme is now in operation throughout the EU ... The scheme will involve constant monitoring of emissions trading activities.

Lastly, an abbreviation in an original for translation should not be rendered by an improvised one in English (e.g. repeated references to 'VM' in an Estonian text should be spelled out as '*the Foreign Ministry*' or just '*the Ministry*' rather than something like 'FM').

Definitions. Abbreviations in the broad sense can be classed into two main categories, each in turn divided into two sub-categories:

Acronyms and initialisms

- **Acronyms** are words formed from the first (or first few) letters of a series of words, and are pronounced as words (Benelux, NATO). They never take points.
- **Initialisms** are formed from the initial letters of a series of words, usually written without points, and each separate letter is pronounced (BBC, MEP, USA).

Contractions and truncations

- **Contractions** omit the middle of a word (Mr, Dr) and, in British usage, are not followed by a point.
- **Truncations** omit the end of a word (Feb., Tues.) and sometimes other letters as well (cf.), and end in a point.

Writing acronyms

Acronyms with **five letters or less** are uppercased:

- AIDS, COST, ECHO, EFTA, NASA, NATO, SHAPE, TRIPS
- *Exceptions: Tacis and Phare*, which are no longer considered acronyms

Acronyms with **six letters or more** should normally be written with an initial capital followed by lower case. Thus:

- Benelux, Esprit, Helios, Interreg, Resider
- *Exceptions:* organisations that themselves use upper case (such as UNESCO and UNCTAD) and other acronyms conventionally written in upper case (such as WYSIWYG)

Note, however, that some acronyms eventually become common nouns, losing even the initial capital, e.g. *laser*, *radar* or *sonar*.

Writing initialisms

Initialisms are usually written in capitals, whatever their length, and take no points:

- EEA, EAGGF, EMCDDA, UNHCR, WTO, also AD for *Anno Domini* and NB for *Nota Bene*

If the full expressions are lower-case or mixed-case, however, the initialisms may follow suit:

- aka, BAe (British Aerospace), cif, fob, MoD, PhD, TfL (Transport for London)

To ensure clarity, initialisms written in lower case may take points or be italicised:

- f.o.b. or *fob*, c.i.f. or *cif*

Note that 'e.g.' and 'i.e.' are never capitalised (even at the beginning of footnotes) and always take points. In contrast, 'plc' (public limited company) is usually without points even if written in lower case.

Writing truncations

Truncations take a point at the end:

- Jan., Sun., Co., fig., etc., cf., chap., dict., *ibid.*
- *Note also:* St. (= Street; as distinguished from the contraction St = Saint) and p. = page (*plural:* pp.); l. = line, (*plural:* ll.)

Note that any plural forms are regarded as truncations rather than contractions, so also take a point:

- chs. 7 to 9, figs. 1 to 3

However, truncated forms used as codes or symbols, e.g. *EN*, *kg*, do not take points (see also 5.20 and 5.29). Further, no point is used after the *v* in the names of court cases (*Smith v Jones*) and sporting contests. The abbreviation *No* for ‘number’ (plural *Nos*) also has no final point, as it is in fact a **contraction** of the Latin *numero*.

Note that first names should be abbreviated with a single letter only, followed by a point (*Philippe: P.*, *Theodor: T.*). Multiple initials should normally be written with points and separated by a hard space (Key code for Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word, press Ctrl + Shift + Space.) (*J. S. Bach*). For compound first names, use both initials (*Jean-Marie: J.-M.*).

As in the case of *e.g.* and *i.e.*, some common truncations are traditionally never written in upper case — even at the beginning of a footnote (*c. [=circa], p., pp., l., ll. [= line/s]*).

Indefinite article. Apply the rule ‘*a* before a consonant, *an* before a vowel’ as if the abbreviation following the article were being spoken:

- a UN resolution, a WTO representative, a NATO decision

Definite/indefinite article

Acronyms constituting proper names do not take the definite article even if the full names do (*Cenelec*, *NATO*, *Unesco*). Where used as common nouns, however, they take a definite (or indefinite) article as necessary (*a/the BLOB*, *WASP*).

Initialisms generally take the definite article if the expression they stand for does (*the OECD*, *the WTO*, *but TNT*). However, there is a tendency to drop the article if the initialism is regarded more as a name in its own right, for example where the full expression is hardly ever used or no longer even known. Bare initialisms are also seen as ‘cooler’, which probably explains *DGT* for *the Directorate-General for Translation*.

Plurals. Plurals of abbreviations are formed in the usual way by adding a lower-case ‘s’ without an apostrophe:

- DGs, ICTs, OCTs, PhDs, SMEs, UFOs

While an abbreviation ending in 'S' should also take an 's' for the plural form, e.g. SOSs, this looks clumsy if it is often used in the plural. In such cases, the abbreviation may be taken to stand for both the singular and the plural form, e.g. MS (Member State(s)), PES (public employment service(s)) or RES (renewable energy source(s)), so does not need an extra 's'.

Foreign-language abbreviations. Untranslated foreign-language abbreviations should retain the capitalisation conventions of the original (e.g. GmbH).

Use of e.g. and i.e. Use a comma, colon, or dash before *e.g.* and *i.e.*, but no comma after them. If a footnote begins with them, they nevertheless remain in lower case. If a list begins with *e.g.* do not end it with *etc.*

Specific recommendations

Do not use the abbreviation *viz.*, but use *namely* instead. The abbreviation *cf.*, however, is acceptable and need not be changed to *see*.

Article may be abbreviated to *Art.* in footnotes or tables, but this should be avoided in running text.

MATHEMATICAL SYMBOLS

Foreign-language conventions. Remember that languages may have different conventions as regards their use of mathematical symbols, especially those for multiplication, division, and subtraction.

Many mathematical symbols also have several different meanings according to the context.

Multiplication sign. Change a point or a raised dot used as a multiplication sign to \times or $*$, e.g. $2.6 \cdot 10^{18}$ becomes 2.6×10^{18} or $2.6 * 10^{18}$. A point used in an algebraic expression can be omitted, e.g. $2A = 2\pi r^2$ can be written $2A = 2\pi r^2$.

Note, however, that a raised dot can have other meanings too.

Division sign. In the English-speaking world, the commonest symbols for division are \div , $/$, and \oslash (obelus (You will find it in the Latin-1 character set after the letter ö, using Insert > Symbol ... in Word.), slash, and solidus or division slash 9In the Mathematical Operators character set, using Insert > Symbol ... in Word)). In other countries $:$ (colon) is very widely used to denote division.

Note that in some countries (Norway, for one) \div can denote subtraction (!), and in Italy it can also denote a range (e.g. $40\% \div 50\%$ means 40 to 50 per cent).

Open dashes. Use a closed-up en dash, not a hyphen or open dash, to signify a range (e.g. 10–12 %).

Technical tolerances. Do not use ± (ASCII 241) to mean ‘about’ or ‘approximately’. Use it only for technical tolerances.

Per cent. Note that *per cent* is normally written as two words in British English. Use *per cent* where the number is also spelled out in words: *twenty per cent*. With figures, use the per cent sign (%) preceded by a thin space (Key code for Windows: Alt + 8201. However, this does not display correctly on Commission PCs using older versions of Windows and Office. In such cases, insert a hard space (Ctrl + Shift + Space in Word) and then halve the space width (in Word: Format, Font, Character Spacing, Scale = 50 %). If this is not practicable, use a normal hard space.), e.g. 25 %.

Observe the distinction between *per cent (or %)* and *percentage point(s)*: an increase from 5 % to 7 % is an increase of two percentage points (or an increase of 40 %), not an increase of 2 %.

Percentages. Express percentage relationships in running text economically, especially when translating: *un taux de 65 % par rapport à la totalité des exportations en dehors de l'Union européenne* translates simply as *65 % of EU exports*.

SCIENTIFIC SYMBOLS AND UNITS OF MEASUREMENT

General. Most scientific symbols in current use are interlingual forms and do not require any adaptation when writing in English. In the specific case of weights and measures, the International System of Units (SI — *Système International*) has now been adopted almost universally for science and technology, as well as generally for trade and industry in the EU. For further guidance, see the UK Metric Association’s ‘Measurement units style guide’.

Names of measurement units. Names of basic and derived units of measurement are always lowercased even if they are derived from a personal name, e.g. *ampere, kelvin, hertz, newton, pascal, watt, siemens, becquerel*. They have normal plurals in -s: *250 volts, 50 watts*, etc.

Note that proper names used adjectivally retain their initial capital: *Richter scale, Mach number, degree Celsius*.

Symbols for units of measurement. These are normally abridged forms of the names of these units. They are written without stops, do not have plurals, and are separated from preceding figures by a hard space (Key code for Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word, press Ctrl + Shift + Space.) (*4 ha, 9 m, 60 km, 50 km/h, 200 g, 5 kg, 40 t, 20 bar, 55 dB (A), 2 000 kc/s*).

Capitalisation/lowercasing of symbols. The initial letter of symbols for SI units derived from personal names is always capitalised: *Hz (hertz), Bq (becquerel), N (newton), K (kelvin)*, etc. Symbols derived from generic nouns are always lowercased and are the same for both

singular and plural: g (gram), kg (kilogram), *lm* (*lumen*), *lx* (*lux*), *mol* (*mole*), *cd* (*candela*), etc.

Internal capitals. Symbols for units of measurement that start with a capital letter keep the capital internally when used with a prefix: *kHz*, *MHz*, *eV*, etc.

Use of prefixes. When adding prefixes to units, you should normally link either symbols only or full-forms only: thus *kilohertz* or *kHz* but not *kiloHz* or *khertz*. Exceptions are made for some frequently used terms: *ktonnes/Mtonnes*, *kbits/Mbytes*.

Non-SI units of measurement. Some non-metric units of measurement are still permitted for certain purposes, e.g. the *pint* in Ireland and the UK and *miles* and *yards* in the UK. Greece uses the *stremma* (1 000 square metres) for land measurement. Aircraft altitudes are often expressed in *feet* (ft). Do not convert quantities, although an explanatory footnote may be inserted if appropriate.

Degree sign. The degree sign in temperatures should be preceded by a thin space (Key code for Windows: Alt + 8201. However, this does not display correctly on Commission PCs using older versions of Windows and Office. In such cases, insert a hard space (Ctrl + Shift + Space in Word) and then halve the space width (in Word: Format, Font, Character Spacing, Scale = 50 %). If this is not practicable, use a normal hard space.), e.g. 25 °C. In other cases, the degree sign is closed up with the preceding number (e.g. 65°NE).

Ohm. The ohm symbol is capital omega (Ω). All other SI symbols for units of measurement are formed from unaccented Latin characters.

Computing. Where computers are concerned, *K* (*kilo*), *M* (*mega*) and *G* (*giga*) often stand for binary thousands ($1\,024=2^{10}$), millions ($1\,048\,576=2^{20}$) and billions ($1\,073\,741\,824=2^{30}$), respectively. Note the capital K in this usage.

Electric power. Kilowatt (*kW*) and megawatt (*MW*) are used for generating capacity, *kWh* and *MWh* for output over a given period.

Chemical elements. The names of the chemical elements start with a lowercase letter, including elements whose designations are derived from proper names: *californium*, *einsteinium*, *nobelium*, etc. Their symbols (which are interlingual) consist either of a single capital or a capital and small letter (*N*, *Sn*, *U*, *Pb*, *Mg*, *Z*) without a point.

In shipping, *grt* stands for gross register tonnage (not *registered*) and *gt* for gross tonnage.

FOREIGN IMPORTS

FOREIGN WORDS AND PHRASES IN ENGLISH TEXT

Foreign words and phrases used in an English text should be italicised (no inverted commas) and should have the appropriate accents, e.g. *inter alia*, *raison d'être*.

Exceptions: words and phrases now in common use and/or considered part of the English language, e.g. *role*, *ad hoc*, *per capita*, *per se*, etc.

Personal names should retain their original accents, e.g. Grybauskaitė, Potočník, Wallström.

Quotations. Place verbatim quotations in foreign languages in quotation marks without italicising the text.

Latin. Avoid obscure Latin phrases if writing for a broad readership. When faced with such phrases as a translator, check whether they have the same currency and meaning when used in English.

The expression 'per diem' ('daily allowance') and many others have English equivalents, which should be preferred e.g. 'a year' or '/year' rather than 'per annum'.

ROMANISATION SYSTEMS

Greek. Use the ELOT phonetic standard for transliteration, except where a classical rendering is more familiar or appropriate in English. Both the ELOT standard and the classical transliteration conventions, along with further recommendations and notes, are reproduced in Annex 1 — Transliteration Table for Greek.

Cyrillic. When transliterating for EU documents, use the scheme set out in Annex 2 — Transliteration Table for Cyrillic. (Note that the 'soft sign' and 'hard sign' should be omitted.) Remember that the EU languages have different transliteration systems (DE: *Boschurischte*, *Tschernobyl*; FR: *Bojourichté*, *Tchernobyl*; EN: *Bozhurishte*, *Chernobyl*). An internet search will normally reveal whether there is a more commonly used English transliteration which is acceptable for particular proper names.

Arabic. There are many different transliteration systems, but an internet search will normally reveal the most commonly used English spelling convention. When translating, do not always rely on the form used in the source text. For example, French, German or Dutch writers may use *j* where *y* is needed in English or French (e.g. DE: *Scheich Jamani* = EN: *Sheikh Yamani*). Note spellings of *Maghreb* and *Mashreq*.

The article *Al* and variants should be capitalised at the beginning of names but not internally: *Dhu al Faqar*, *Abd ar Rahman*. Do not use hyphens to connect parts of a name

Chinese. The pinyin romanisation system introduced by the People's Republic in the 1950s has now become the internationally accepted standard. Important new spellings to note are:

- Beijing (Peking)

- Guangzhou (Canton)
- Nanjing (Nanking)
- Xinjiang (Sinkiang)

The spelling of *Shanghai* remains the same.

Add the old form in parentheses if you think it necessary.

PARTS OF SPEECH

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Biannual/biennial. 'Biannual' means twice a year and 'biennial' means every two years, but the terms are often confused. If the meaning is not clear from the context, use alternatives such as 'twice-yearly' or 'two-yearly' or clarify what you mean, e.g. 'the biannual/biennial report (i.e. published every six months / two years)'.

Here-/there- adverbs. *Herewith, thereto*, etc. are archaic or extremely formal variants of *with this, to that*, etc. and should normally be avoided. If you feel you must use such forms, however, bear the following points in mind: *here-* adverbs should preferably be used only where they specifically refer to 'the present text', as for example in *hereto attached* or *herein described*; *hereinafter* is more precise than *hereafter* if what you mean is 'from this point onwards within this text'; *therefor* without a final 'e' is how you write 'for that (purpose)'.

SINGULAR OR PLURAL

Collective nouns. Use the singular when the emphasis is on the whole entity:

- The Government is considering the matter.
- The Commission was not informed.

Use the plural when the emphasis is on the individual members:

- The police have failed to trace the goods.
- A majority of the Committee were in favour.

Countries and organisations with a plural name take the singular:

- The Netherlands is reconsidering its position.
- The United Nations was unable to reach agreement.

Use a singular verb when a multiple subject clearly forms a whole:

- Checking and stamping the forms is the job of the customs authorities.

Words in -ics. These are singular when used to denote a scientific discipline or body of knowledge (mathematics, statistics, economics) but plural in all other contexts.

- Economics is commonly regarded as a soft science.
- The economics of the new process were studied in depth.

A statistic. The singular *statistic* is a back-formation from the plural and means an individual item of data from a set of statistics.

Data can be construed as either singular or plural.

None and one. The word *none* may take either a singular or plural verb when it refers to a plural countable noun:

- None of the products **meets/meet** the requirements.

If *none* refers to a singular or uncountable noun, it takes a singular verb:

- None of the information **was** correct.

Although the subject *one in X* (e.g. *one in five*, *one in ten*) is singular, the construction may take a plural verb if the notional agreement (i.e. the sense that the subject should be interpreted as plural) is stronger than the grammatical agreement:

- One in ten people **do** not have basic maths skills.
- One person in ten **does** not have basic maths skills.
- One in five schools in England and Wales **is/are** struggling to recruit a headteacher.

Decimal fractions and zero. When referring to countable items, they take the plural:

- Ruritanian households have on average 0 / 0.5 / 1.0 (!) / 1.5 televisions (but 1 television)

PRESENT PERFECT/SIMPLE PAST

When writing from the standpoint of the present moment in time, the present perfect is used to refer to events or situations in the period leading up to that time:

- The Commission is meeting to consider the proposal. It has (already) discussed this several times in the past.

Where the starting point of this period is indicated, the present perfect is often used in its continuous form to emphasise the ongoing nature of the process:

- The Commission is meeting to consider the proposal. It has been discussing this since 2001.

If the reference is not to a period up to the present but to a time that ended before the present, the simple past is used:

- The Commission is meeting to consider the proposal. It discussed this last week.

TENSES IN MINUTES

Minutes and summary records are written in the past tense in English, unlike in French and some other languages, where they are written using the present tense.

7.13 This means converting actual or implied statements from the present to the past.

A simple example of English reported speech conventions:

- Dutch spokesman: 'We *are* concerned at the number of exceptions which *have been* included.'
- Chairman: 'The legal experts *will* be looking into this question.'

In reported speech, this becomes:

- The Dutch delegation was concerned at the number of exceptions that *had been* included. The Chairman said the legal experts *would be* looking into the question.

Sequence of tenses. Simple past is normally replaced by past perfect (pluperfect):

- Dr Nolde said the tests *had been* a failure.

However, to avoid a clumsy string of past perfects in minutes where a speaker is reporting on another meeting or event, start with *At that meeting* or *On that occasion* and continue with the simple past. Note that in order to maintain a logical sequence of tenses, indications of time may have to be converted as well as verbs:

- Chair: 'Last year, if you remember, we referred this problem to the subcommittee because we felt that legislation was inappropriate. It looks now,

however, as if tougher measures may be needed, and I propose that we discuss these at *tomorrow's* session.'

This could become, for example:

- The Chair reminded delegates that *in 2003* the problem had been referred to the subcommittee, since legislation was then felt to be inappropriate. Now, however, she thought tougher measures might be needed and proposed that the committee discuss them at *the following day's* session.'

Streamlining. Lengthy passages of reported speech can be made more reader-friendly by avoiding unnecessary repetition of 'he said/explained/pointed out', provided the argument is followed through and it is clear from the context that the same speaker is continuing.

Auxiliaries. The auxiliaries *would, should, could, must, might* are often unchanged, but sometimes various transpositions are possible or required (e.g. *must => had to; could => would be able to; should => was to*).

VERBS IN LEGISLATION

The use of verbs, in particular the modal verb *shall*, in legislation often gives rise to problems, since such uses are rarely encountered in everyday speech. Consequently, writers may lack a feel for the right construction. The following section is intended to provide guidance.

Use of verbs in enacting terms. The enacting terms of binding EU legislation, i.e. the articles of EU treaties (see chapter 15) and of EU regulations, directives and decisions (see chapter 16), can be divided broadly into two linguistic categories: imperative terms and declarative terms. Imperative terms can in turn be subdivided into positive and negative commands and positive and negative permissions. Declarative terms are terms that are implemented directly by virtue of being declared, for example definitions or amendments. Note that the explanations here apply only to the main clauses of sentences in enacting terms.

For a *positive command*, use *shall*:

- This form shall be used for all consignments.

Note that this provision expresses an obligation. However, this is not always the case:

- This Regulation shall enter into force on ...

Theoretically, *must* could be used instead of *shall* in the first case, while *will* could be used in both cases. However, this is not the practice in EU legislation.

For a *negative command*, use *shall not*:

- The provisions of the Charter shall not extend in any way the competences of the Union as defined in the Treaties.
- This agreement shall not enter into force until/if ...

Where a prohibition is meant, however, use *may not*:

- The Judges may not hold any political or administrative office.
- This additive may not be used in foods.

As a guide to usage, note that *will not* could be used instead of *shall not* in the first case, and *must not* could be used instead of *may not* in the second. Again, however, this is not the usual practice in EU legislation.

For a *positive permission*, use *may*:

- This additive may be used ...:

For a *negative permission*, use *need not*:

- This test need not be performed in the following cases:

For *declarative terms*, use the simple present (together with an optional 'hereby' where the declaration constitutes an action, as in the first three examples):

- Regulation ... is (hereby) repealed.
- A committee ... is (hereby) established.
- Article 3 of Regulation ...is (hereby) amended as follows:
- This Regulation applies to aid granted to enterprises in the agriculture or fisheries sectors.
- For the purpose of this Regulation, 'abnormal loads' means ...

Note that *shall* be could be used in the first four examples (without *hereby*), but the meaning would be different: instead of declaring something to be so, this would be ordaining that something is to be so at some point or in some event (*Two years after the entry into force of this Regulation/Should the Member States so decide, ...*). In the last example as well, *shall mean* would in effect be instructing people how to use the term 'abnormal loads' from now on, rather than simply declaring what it means in the regulation. Consequently, where no futurity or contingency is intended, the correct form here is a declarative term using the simple present.

Use of verbs in non-enacting terms. Do not use *shall* in non-enacting terms, for example recitals or points in annexes. This is because these are not normally imperative terms (but see 7.25 below) and *shall* is not used with the third person in English except in commands (and to express resolution as in *it shall be done*). Use other verbs such as *will* or *must* as appropriate. Note that this also applies to subordinate phrases in enacting terms, since these refer or explain and do not in themselves constitute commands (e.g. *where applicants must/have to/are to [not shall] submit documentation under paragraph 1, ...*).

Avoid also the archaic use of *shall* in subordinate clauses to express contingency: use instead the present tense (e.g. *if an application is [not shall be] submitted after the deadline, ...*) or the inverted construction with *should* (e.g. *should an application be submitted after the deadline, ...*).

Do not use *may not* in non-enacting terms to express a prohibition since it will often be interpreted as expressing possibility: use, for example, *must not* instead.

Instructions in annexes to legislation. While instructions will contain imperative terms, they often contain descriptions and statements of fact as well. For the sake of clarity, therefore, you should use the second person imperative rather than *shall* for commands:

- Place a sample in a round-bottomed flask ...

Use *must* to express objective necessity:

The sample must be chemically pure ... (*i.e. if it isn't, the procedure won't work properly*)

SPLIT INFINITIVE

This refers to the practice of inserting adverbs or other words before an infinitive but after the 'to' that usually introduces it, as in 'to boldly go where no-one has gone before'. Although there is nothing wrong with this practice from the standpoint of English grammar, there are still many who think otherwise. One way of encouraging such readers to concentrate on the content of your text rather than on the way you express it is to avoid separating the 'to' from its following infinitive. Note, however, that this does not justify qualifying the wrong verb, as in 'we called on her legally to condemn the practice'. In these and similar cases, either split the infinitive with a clear conscience or move the qualifying adverb to the end of the phrase.

THE GERUND AND THE POSSESSIVE

A gerund has the same form as a present participle, i.e. it is made up of a verb stem plus *-ing*. Strictly speaking, it is a verb form used as a noun:

- Parliament objected to the President's prompt signing of the Treaty. (1)

The use of the possessive form (*the President's*) follows the rule for nouns in general, as in:

- Parliament objected to the President's prompt denunciation of the Treaty.

However, (1) could also be expressed as:

- Parliament objected to the President promptly signing the Treaty. (2)

Here, though, 'signing' is still clearly a verb and is not itself being used as a noun, as it takes a direct object without 'of' and is modified by an adverb (*promptly*) not an adjective (*prompt*). Accordingly, as 'the President' is still the subject of a verb not a noun, there is no reason for it to be in the possessive, despite what many authorities might say.

Note also the slight difference in nuance: the objection is to the President's action in (1), but to an idea or possibility in (2). This explains why one could write 'criticised' in (1) but not in (2), and why 'does not foresee' fits in (2) but not in (1).

Although the two constructions in (1) and (2) are therefore clearly distinct, the use of personal pronouns poses a problem. 'He' would be the logical choice to replace 'the President' in (2), but unfortunately is no longer current English except in 'absolute' phrases such as 'he being the President, we had to obey'. The solution is to use 'him' by analogy with similar looking constructions such as 'we saw him signing the Treaty' or to use 'his' by analogy with (1):

- Parliament objected to him/his promptly signing the Treaty.

In such cases, however, the use of the possessive pronoun blurs the distinction between (1) and (2). This means that the latter form can turn up in contexts where it would otherwise not occur:

- Despite his promptly signing the Treaty, ...

Bear in mind, though, that such constructions often look better rephrased:

- Even though he promptly signed the Treaty, ...
- Despite promptly signing the Treaty, he

LISTS

8.1 Use automatic numbering wherever possible, since it is much easier to amend a list if the numbers are automatically adjusted.

For the list items themselves, take care that each is a grammatically correct continuation of the introduction to the list. Do not change syntactical horses in midstream, for example by switching from noun to verb. Avoid running the sentence on after the list of points, either by incorporating the final phrase in the introductory sentence or by starting a new sentence.

When translating lists, always use the same type of numbering as in the original, e.g. Arabic numerals, small letters, Roman numerals, etc. If the original has bullets or dashes, use these. However, you need not use the same punctuation (points, brackets, etc.) for list numbers, and indeed should not do so if they would otherwise look the same as numbered headings elsewhere in the text.

The four basic types of list are illustrated below. In multi-level lists, follow the same rules for each level.

Lists of short items (without main verbs) should be introduced by a full sentence and have the following features:

- introductory colon
- no initial capitals
- no punctuation (very short items) or comma after each item
- a full stop at the end.

Where each item completes the introductory sentence, you should:

- begin with the introductory colon;
- label each item with the appropriate bullet, number or letter;
- end each item with a semicolon;
- close with a full stop.

If all items are complete statements without a grammatical link to the introductory sentence, proceed as follows:

- a. introduce the list with a colon;
- b. label each item with the appropriate bullet, number or letter;
- c. start each item with a lowercase letter;
- d. end each one with a semicolon;
- e. put a full stop at the end.

If any one item consists of several complete sentences, announce the list with a complete sentence and continue as indicated below:

- 1) Introduce the list with a colon.
- 2) Label each item with the appropriate bullet, number or letter.
- 3) Begin each item with a capital letter.

- 4) End each statement with a full stop. This allows several sentences to be included under a single item without throwing punctuation into confusion.

SCIENCE GUIDE

Biological sciences. As the binomial system for classifying living organisms is used in all languages, it is normally sufficient to reproduce the original terms. Note that the initial letter of the scientific name is capitalised, while species epithets are always lowercased, even if derived from proper names (e.g. *Martes americana*, *Pusa sibirica*). The names of genera and species are always italicised. Practice varies for the names of higher taxonomic ranks, but the trend is towards italicising them too:

- **ORDER:** Rosales > Carnivora
- **FAMILY:** Rosaceae > Felidae
- **GENUS:** Rosa > Felis
- **SPECIES:** Rosa moschata > Felis catus

In zoology, the names of subspecies are also italicised: *Felis silvestris bieti*. In botany, the names of taxons below the rank of species are also italicised, but the rank itself is indicated by an unitalicised abbreviation: *Acanthocalycium klimpelianum* var. *macranthum*. The recommended abbreviations are 'subsp.' (rather than 'ssp.') for subspecies, 'var.' for 'variety', 'subvar.' for subvariety, 'f.' for 'form', and 'subf.' for 'subform'. The name of a cultivar is placed in single quotation marks without italics, and the first letter of each word is capitalised: *Camellia japonica* 'Ballet Dancer'.

Most text references are to genus or species (i.e. the name of the genus followed by an epithet). The genus name should be spelled out in full on first occurrence and subsequently abbreviated: *Escherichia coli*, abbreviated *E. coli*.

Non-technical usage. Some scientific plant names are identical with the vernacular name and of course should not be capitalised or italicised when used non-technically (e.g. 'rhododendron growers' but *Rhododendron canadense*).

Geology. Use initial capitals for formations (*Old Red Sandstone*; *Eldon formation*) and geological time units (*Cenozoic*; *Tertiary period*; *Holocene*) but not for the words era, period, etc.

Chemical compounds. Like chemical elements, the symbols for chemical compounds (i.e. chemical formulae) are interlingual: *NaCl*, *H₂O*, *C₁₈H₂₅NO*, etc.

Sulphur/sulfur. Note that the spelling *sulfur* is preferred by the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC), but the Harmonised System and Combined Nomenclature (customs tariff nomenclatures) retain the *sulph*- forms. The correct spelling will therefore depend on the context.

Avoiding hyphenation. Current practice is to avoid hyphenation altogether, except between letters and numbers (see below). This applies both to prefixes (such as *di*, *iso*, *tetra*, *tri*: *diisopropyl fluorophosphate*, *ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid*) and other compound forms (*benzeneethanol*), where normal hyphenation rules would require a hyphen between the double vowels.

Closed and open compounds. When in doubt as to whether to close up constituents or not (*ethyl alcohol*, but *ethylbenzene*), follow the conventions used in EINECS (*European inventory of existing commercial chemical substances*).

Using EINECS. You can use EINECS to search for a substance by name. Choose the source language (only English, French, German, or Spanish are available) and select the option in the left-hand box. If you cannot locate a substance, search for the head noun, i.e. the rightmost constituent of the string, followed by the attributive parts of the compound. Thus, *lactate dehydrogenase* is entered as *Dehydrogenase, lactate*.

Names containing numbers. Use hyphens to link numbers to letters in the names of chemical compounds (on both sides if the number is an infix). If there are several numbers in sequence, they are separated by commas. Examples: *2-pentanone*; *1,2-dichloroethane*; *2,2,3,3-tetrabromobutane*.

Sentences beginning with numbers. If the first word in a sentence is a chemical compound that starts with a number, the first letter is capitalised:

- 2-Pentanone is a compound obtainable from propionic acid.

Common names. Most chemical compounds in widespread use have one or more common names besides their scientific name. Such common names or abbreviations of the scientific names are often used for brevity's sake in scientific texts. For example, *ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid* is more customarily known as *edetic acid* or abbreviated to *EDTA*. If translating, follow source document usage.

FOOTNOTES, CITATIONS AND REFERENCES

Footnote and endnote references. Use the automatic footnote function so that if you alter the order of footnotes, they will be renumbered automatically. Footnote/endnote references in text are usually given as superscript numerals without brackets following punctuation. However, to achieve uniformity across language versions, the Publications Office places footnote references in brackets before punctuation. Follow this practice when producing or translating texts destined for the Publications Office.

Positioning of footnote/endnote numbers referring to legislation. Put the footnote number immediately after the title of the instrument.

Punctuation in footnotes. In footnotes themselves, begin the text with a capital letter (exceptions being e.g., i.e. and p.) and end it with a full stop (whether the footnote is a single word, a phrase or one or more complete sentences).

Bibliographical citations. If authoring for an EU institution. If translating, follow the source document conventions.

Citations. Put titles of periodicals, books and newspapers in italics but cite titles of articles within such publications in single quotation marks. Use the English titles of publications where an official English version exists but do not translate titles of works that have appeared only in a foreign language.

Citing EU documents. Italicise the titles of white and green papers. Separate the main title and the subtitle, if any, with an *em* dash. Use initial capitals on the first and all significant words in the main title and on the first word in the subtitle. Launch straight into the italicised title: do not introduce it with ‘on’, ‘concerning’, ‘entitled’, etc.

- In the White Paper *Growth, Competitiveness, Employment — The challenges and ways forward into the twenty-first century*, the Commission set out a strategy ...
- The White Paper *Growth, Competitiveness, Employment* was the first ...
- In *Growth, Competitiveness, Employment*, on the other hand, the Commission set in motion ... [*this form might work where the White Paper had already been mentioned, for example, or in an enumeration*]
- The Green Paper *Towards Fair and Efficient Pricing in Transport — Policy options for internalising the external costs of transport in the European Union*
- The *Green Paper on Innovation* [*‘Green Paper on’ is part of its title*]

Do the same with the titles of other policy statements and the like that are published in their own right:

- the communication *An Industrial Competitiveness Policy for the European Union* [published as Bull. Suppl. 3/94]
- the communication *Agenda 2000: For a stronger and wider Union* [*when the reference is to the title of the document, which was published in Bull. Suppl. 5/97; but of course we would probably say ‘an Agenda 2000 priority’ for example*]

If a policy statement has a title, but has not as far as you know been published, put the title in inverted commas:

- the communication ‘A European Strategy for Encouraging Local Development and Employment Initiatives’ [*this appeared in OJ C 265 of 12 October 1995, and*

its title is cast like the title of a book, but it does not seem to have been published in its own right]

‘Communications’ that are not policy statements, such as the announcements which regularly appear in the Official Journal (OJ), get no italics, inverted commas, or special capitalisation:

- the Commission communication in the framework of the implementation of Council Directive 89/686/EEC of 21 December 1989 in relation to personal protective equipment, as amended by Council Directives 93/68/EEC, 93/95/EEC and 96/58/EC [OJ C 180 of 14 June 1997]

Referring to parts of documents. When referring to parts of documents, use Part, Chapter, Section, etc. with capitals only if the parts are actually called that. If the parts only have a number or title, use an appropriate term in lower case, e.g. part, section or point, to refer to them or simply use the number or title, for example:

- See [point] 6.4 below
- See [the section on] *The sexual life of the camel* on page 21

Do not use a symbol such as a section mark (§, plural §§) unless the section referred to is itself marked by such a symbol (see also 16.28).

CORRESPONDENCE

Translating incoming letters. If a letter is in an editable electronic format, simply overtype the original, though you need not translate irrelevant detail. However, if the letter cannot be overtyped, use a simple layout such as follows:

Letter from:

(name and, where necessary, address on one line)

Date:

To:

Subject:

Ref.:

Text of the letter *(no opening or closing formula)*

Drafting and translating outgoing letters. Remember the basic pairs for opening and closing letters:

Dear Sir/Madam ... Yours faithfully

Dear Mr/Ms/Dr Bloggs ... Yours sincerely

The tendency is towards greater use of the second, less formal, pair when the correspondent's name is known. It should certainly be used in letters of reply to individuals.

Note that commas should be placed either after both opening **and** closing formula, or after **neither**.

Agreements in the form of an exchange of letters

Letter 1

Start:

Sir/Your Excellency,

I have the honour ...

Close:

I should be obliged if you would inform me whether/confirm that your Government is in agreement with the above.

Please accept, Sir/Your Excellency, the assurance of my highest consideration.

Letter 2

Start:

Sir/Your Excellency,

I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of your letter of today's date, which reads as follows:

(Insert text of letter 1)

Close:

I am able to inform you/confirm that my Government is in agreement with the contents of your letter/I have the honour to confirm that the above is acceptable to my Government and that your letter and this letter constitute an agreement in accordance with your proposal.

Please accept, Sir/Your Excellency, the assurance of my highest consideration.

Exchanges of Notes (Notes Verbales).

Start:

(*Mission No 1*) presents its compliments to (*Mission No 2*) and has the honour to refer to ...

Close:

(*Mission No 1*) avails itself of this opportunity to renew to (*Mission No 2*) the assurance of its highest consideration.

PERSONAL NAMES AND TITLES

General. Surnames are not normally uppercased in running text (thus Mr Barroso not Mr BARROSO), unless the aim is to highlight the names (e.g. in minutes).

Also, avoid the non-English practice of using the initial for the first name in running text. Wherever possible spell out the first name the first time round and contract thereafter. Thus:

- Gro Harlem Brundtland (*first mention*), Ms Brundtland (*thereafter*)
- Tony Blair (*first mention*), Mr Blair (*thereafter*)

If it is impossible to track down the first name, then drop the initial.

Ms — Mme — Frau. As a matter of courtesy use *Ms* in English unless you know that the person concerned prefers otherwise. Note that the French *Mme* and German *Frau* are likewise courtesy titles: a *Mme* or *Frau* is not necessarily a *Mrs* (i.e. married).

Foreign-language titles. Avoid titles not customary in English, but note that if you use Mr or Ms, you must obviously be sure of the gender of the person in question.

- **For: write**
- Prof. Dr. H. Schmidt: Prof. H. Schmidt
- Dipl.-Ing. W. Braun: Mr W. Braun
- Drs. A. Baerdemaeker: Ms A. Baerdemaeker
- Ir. B. De Bruyn: Ms B. De Bruyn
- Me Reuter: Mr Reuter

Doctor. The title *Dr* should be given when it appears in the original (except in combined titles, as above), regardless of whether the holder is a doctor of medicine or not.

NAMES OF BODIES

If a body, for example an international organisation, has an *official name in English*, always use that:

- World Organisation for Animal Health (*rather than* Organisation Mondiale de la Santé Animale)

If it does not, follow the tips below.

In *legal acts* (i.e. any text where the English will have legal force), always use a body's original name:

- This Decision is addressed to Federazione Dottori Commercialisti.
- Logistik GmbH and CargoCo s.à.r.l. have infringed Article 101 TFEU.

Elsewhere, if a body's name is essentially a *description* of what it does, for example the name of a ministry, you should translate it, preferably with a commonly accepted or previously used term. The following solutions are all possible, depending on the type of document and/or the importance of the body in the document:

- the Bundesministerium für Gesundheit (Federal Ministry of Health) [*formal, or e.g. where the document is about this body*]
- the Federal Ministry of Health (Bundesministerium für Gesundheit) [*e.g. where this body plays a significant role in the document*]
- the Federal Ministry of Health [*e.g. when part of a long list of ministries or mentioned just in passing*]
- the German health ministry [*informal, e.g. web text*]

After the first mention, the name given in brackets may be dropped. The full name may also be shortened if there is no risk of confusion, e.g. *the Bundesministerium/Ministry replied that...*

In contrast, if the name is essentially a *proper name*, such as a company name, leave it in the original form. However, at the first mention it may sometimes be useful to include an ad hoc or previously used translation or to give an explanation:

- The company's name had by now been changed from Pfaffenhofener Würstli [Pfaffenhofen Sausages] to Bayrische Spezialitäten [Bavarian Specialities].
- The Delflandse Wandelvrienden (a local Dutch hiking association) wrote to the President direct.

Note that company abbreviations may be omitted after the first mention:

- The firms in question are Rheinische Heizungsfabrik GmbH, Calorifica Italia SpA, SIA Ekobriketes, and Kamna Dvořák sro. In the meantime, Ekobriketes and Kamna Dvořák have gone out of business.

Familiar foreign names. If a body's original-language name is familiar to the intended readership, or the body uses it in its own English texts, use that rather than a translation:

- The Bundesbank has issued a new policy directive.
- Médecins Sans Frontières has long been active in this region.

Abbreviations. Where a body is referred to in the original language by an abbreviation, do not translate it with an improvised English one. Instead, give the English name followed by the original abbreviation (transliterating if necessary) in brackets (or vice versa) upon first mention, and include the original name as well if it is given:

- the German Social Democratic Party (SPD)
- SKAT (the Danish Central Customs and Tax Administration)
- the Czech General Health Insurance Fund (Všeobecná zdravotní pojišťovna České Republiky — VZP)
- the Regional Public Health Inspectorate in Bulgaria (RIOKOZ)

In the rest of the text, you may use just the abbreviation.

Back-transliteration of names. Where a name written in a non-Latin alphabet is obviously a rendering of a word or phrase normally written in the Latin alphabet, e.g. an English expression, use that rather than a transliteration:

- Orange Juice AE *not* Orantz Tzous AE
- Bulgaria Air *not* Bulgaria Er 13

GENDER-NEUTRAL LANGUAGE

Using gender-neutral formulations is more than a matter of political correctness. The Commission wholeheartedly endorses equal opportunities, and its language should reflect this. Using the generic 'he' is incongruous, since Commission documents are just as likely to be addressed to women.

He/she. Avoid the clumsy *he/she* etc., except perhaps in non-running text such as application forms. The best solution is often to use the plural, which in any case is more

commonly used in English for the generic form as it does not require the definite article. For example, in draft legislation or calls for tenders, translate *l'exportateur/le soumissionnaire ... il by exporters/tenderers ... they*. It is also acceptable to use forms such as *everyone has their own views on this* (see *usage note* for *they* in the Concise Oxford Dictionary).

In some texts, for example in manuals or sets of instructions, it is more natural in English to address the reader directly using the second-person form or even the imperative:

- You should first turn on your computer.

or

- First turn on your computer.

instead of

- The user should first turn on his/her computer.

Noun forms. Use your judgment in choosing noun forms to emphasise or de-emphasise gender, such as *Chairman*, *Chairwoman* or *Chair*, but note that Parliament now uses *Chair* for its committees.

For certain occupations a substitute for a gender-specific term is now commonly used to refer to persons working in those occupations, e.g. we now write *firefighters* instead of *firemen* and *police officer* instead of *policeman* or *policewoman*. Note that the terms *tradesperson* and *craftsperson* are commonly used instead of *tradesman* and *craftsman* by local government authorities advertising jobs to both men and women. The term *fishermen* is still in common use, though the compound *fisherman/woman* and *fishermen/women* can also be found in UK sources.

About the European Union

THE EUROPEAN UNION

The European Union — EU. In geographical terms, the *European Union* comprises the combined territories of its Member States. Since the Treaty of Lisbon, it now has legal personality in its own right and absorbs what used to be known as the *European Community/ies*. Although it is often abbreviated to ‘Union’ in legislation (e.g. in the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union), this practice should be avoided in other texts. Use either the full form or the abbreviation ‘EU’.

The (European) Community/ies. Now absorbed by the European Union, so the name should no longer be used except in historical references. Use instead ‘the European Union’ or ‘EU’. For example, ‘Community policy/institutions/legislation’ should now read ‘European Union / EU /policy/institutions/legislation’. However, note that the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom) continues to exist.

Common, meaning *EU*, is still used in set phrases such as *common fisheries policy*, *common agricultural* (not *agriculture*) *policy*, etc. Do not use the term in this sense outside these set phrases.

Common market. This term is normally used in EU documents only in phrases such as ‘the common market in goods and services’.

Single market. This term is generally preferable to *internal market* (which has other connotations in the UK), except in standard phrases such as ‘completing the internal market’, which was originally the title of the key White Paper.

The Twenty-seven (Twenty-five, Fifteen, Twelve, Ten, Nine, Six). These expressions are sometimes used to refer to different memberships of the European Union at different periods. In this context the only correct abbreviation is EU-27, 25, 15, 12, 10, 9 or 6 (not EUR-25 etc.) to avoid confusion with the euro.

Acquis. The *acquis* (note the italics) is the body of EU law in the broad sense, comprising:

- the Treaties and other instruments of similar status (primary legislation);
- the legislation adopted under the Treaties (secondary legislation);
- the case law of the Court of Justice;
- the declarations and resolutions adopted by the EU;
- measures relating to the common foreign and security policy;

- measures relating to justice and home affairs;
- international agreements concluded by the EU and those concluded by the Member States among themselves in connection with the EU's activities.

Note that the term covers 'soft' law as well, e.g. EU guidelines, policies and recommendations.

Candidate countries have to accept the entire *acquis* and translate it into their national language before they can join the EU.

If qualified, *acquis* may also refer to a specific part of EU law, e.g. the Schengen *acquis*.

When you are producing documents intended for the general public, use the term *acquis* only with an accompanying explanation, or paraphrase it with a more readily understood expression, such as 'the body of EU law'.

PRIMARY LEGISLATION

The way in which the European Union operates is regulated by a series of Treaties and various other agreements having similar status. Together they constitute what is known as *primary legislation*.

THE TREATIES — AN OVERVIEW

The treaties founding the European Union (originally the European Communities) were:

- the ECSC Treaty (Paris, 1951), which established the *European Coal and Steel Community* (expired in 2002),
- the EEC Treaty (Rome, 1957), which established the *European Economic Community* (later the EC Treaty, now the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union),
- the Euratom Treaty (Rome, 1957), which established the *European Atomic Energy Community*.

Then in 1992 the European Union was established by:

- the EU Treaty (Maastricht, 1992).

Over the years these founding Treaties have been amended by:

- the Merger Treaty (1965)
- the Budget Treaty (1975)

- the Greenland Treaty (1984)
- the Single European Act (1986)
- the Treaty of Amsterdam (1997)
- the Treaty of Nice (2001)
- the Treaty of Lisbon (2007)
- five Accession Treaties (1972; 1979; 1985; 1994; 2003).

THE TREATIES IN DETAIL

Order of listing. When listed together the Treaties should be put in historical order: ECSC Treaty, EEC Treaty, Euratom Treaty, EU Treaty.

ECSC Treaty — Treaty establishing the European Coal and Steel Community.

Signed in Paris on 18 April 1951, it came into force on 23 July 1952 and expired on 23 July 2002. It is sometimes also called the Treaty of Paris.

Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU).

This is the new name — introduced by the Treaty of Lisbon — for what was formerly known as the EC Treaty (Treaty establishing the European Community) and earlier still as the EEC Treaty (Treaty establishing the European Economic Community). The original EEC Treaty was signed in Rome on 25 March 1957 and came into force on 1 January 1958.

Euratom Treaty — Treaty establishing the European Atomic Energy Community.

Also signed in Rome on 25 March 1957, it came into force on 1 January 1958. The standard form is now Euratom Treaty rather than EAEC Treaty.

Treaties of Rome refers to the EEC and Euratom Treaties together.

Merger Treaty — Treaty establishing a Single Council and a Single Commission of the European Communities.

Signed in Brussels on 8 April 1965, it came into force on 1 July 1967.

Budget Treaty — Treaty amending certain Financial Provisions of the Treaties establishing the European Communities and of the Treaty establishing a Single Council and a Single Commission of the European Communities.

Signed in Brussels on 22 July 1975, it came into force on 1 June 1977.

Greenland Treaty — Treaty amending, with regard to Greenland, the Treaties establishing the European Communities.

Signed on 13 March 1984, it came into force on 1 January 1985. This made arrangements for Greenland's withdrawal from the then European Communities and granted the island 'Overseas Countries and Territories' status.

Single European Act.

Signed in Luxembourg and The Hague on 17 and 28 February 1986, it came into force on 1 July 1987. This was the first major substantive amendment to the EEC Treaty. It committed the signatories to a single European market by the end of 1992 and generally expanded the scope of European policy-making. It also made minor amendments to the ECSC and Euratom Treaties.

Treaty on European Union (TEU) or EU Treaty.

Signed in Maastricht on 7 February 1992, it came into force on 1 November 1993. Often known as the Maastricht Treaty, it established a European Union based on (1) the existing Communities plus (2) a common foreign and security policy (CFSP) and (3) cooperation on justice and home affairs (JHA). Among other things it gave the European Parliament an equal say with the Council on legislation in some areas and extended the scope of qualified majority voting in the Council. It also laid down a timetable and arrangements for the adoption of a single currency and changed the name of the European Economic Community to the European Community. It has now been amended by the Treaty of Lisbon (see 15.15).

For the short form, write 'the EU Treaty' or, in citations, abbreviate to TEU. (see 15.18).

Treaty of Amsterdam — Treaty of Amsterdam amending the Treaty on European Union, the Treaties establishing the European Communities and certain related acts.

Signed in Amsterdam on 2 October 1997, it came into force on 1 May 1999. After enlargement to 15 members in 1995 and with further expansion in prospect, it sought to streamline the system, taking the innovations of Maastricht a step further. Among other things, it broadened the scope of qualified majority voting and brought the Schengen arrangements and much of justice and home affairs into the then Community. It also incorporated the Social Protocol into the EC Treaty. Under the Common Foreign and Security Policy, the arrangements on defence aspects were strengthened. Finally it completely renumbered the articles of the EU and EC Treaties.

Treaty of Nice — Treaty of Nice amending the Treaty on European Union, the Treaties establishing the European Communities and certain related acts.

Signed in Nice on 26 February 2001, it came into force on 1 February 2003. It amended the founding Treaties yet again to pave the way for enlargement to 25 Member States, making certain changes in institutional and decision-making arrangements (qualified majority

voting, codecision) and extending still further the areas covered by these arrangements. It changed the name of the Official Journal of the European Communities to 'Official Journal of the European Union'.

Treaty of Lisbon — Treaty of Lisbon amending the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty establishing the European Community. Signed in Lisbon on 13 December 2007, it came into force on 1 December 2009. It amended the EU's two core treaties: the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty establishing the European Community. The latter was renamed the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. The principal changes include the following:

- the European Union acquired legal personality and absorbed the European Community;
- qualified majority voting was extended to new areas;
- the European Council was made a European institution in its own right and acquired a President elected for 2½ years;
- the post of High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy (also a Vice-President of the Commission) was established;
- the role of the European Parliament and national parliaments was strengthened;
- a new 'citizens' initiative' introduced the right for citizens to petition the Commission to put forward proposals.

These changes also had major consequences for terminology, in particular all references to 'Community' became 'European Union' or 'EU' and a number of institutions were renamed. This process is still ongoing, though.

Accession treaties. The original Treaties have been supplemented by six treaties of accession. These are:

- the 1972 Treaty of Accession (Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom),
- the 1979 Treaty of Accession (Greece),
- the 1985 Treaty of Accession (Portugal and Spain),
- the 1994 Treaty of Accession (Austria, Finland and Sweden),
- the 2003 Treaty of Accession (Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia),

- the 2005 Treaty of Accession (adding Bulgaria and Romania).

Do not confuse the dates of these Treaties with the actual dates of accession (1973, 1981, 1986, 1995, 2004, 2007).

Note that the accession of Romania and Bulgaria is considered to have completed the fifth enlargement, rather than constituting a sixth enlargement.

Treaties versus Acts of Accession. Take care to distinguish between *Treaty of Accession* and *Act of Accession*. Treaties of accession set out principles and regulate ratification, while acts of accession contain the technical details of transitional arrangements and secondary legislation (*droit dérivé*) requiring amendment.

TREATY CITATIONS

Citation forms. Always use a treaty's full title in legislation:

- ... the procedure laid down in Article 269 of the Treaty establishing the European Community ... (Article 2(2) of Council Decision 2000/597/EC, Euratom)

However, the Treaty of Amsterdam and the Treaty of Nice may be cited as such:

- ... five years after the entry into force of the Treaty of Amsterdam ...

On the other hand, it is common usage in legal writing (e.g. commentaries, grounds of judgments) to cite the Treaties using a shortened form or abbreviation:

- The wording of Article 17 Euratom reflects ...
- Under the terms of Article 97 TFEU the Commission can ...
- The arrangements for a rapid decision under Article 30(2) TEU allow ...

This form can be used practically anywhere (except, of course, in legislation), especially if the full title is given when it first occurs.

Citing subdivisions of articles. Paragraphs and subparagraphs that are officially designated by numbers or letters should be cited in the following form (note: no spaces):

- Article 107(3)(d) of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union ...

Subdivisions of an article that are not identified by a number or letter should be cited in the form *nth (sub)paragraph of Article XX* or, less formally, *Article XX, nth (sub)paragraph*.

- The first paragraph of Article 110 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union ...

- Article 191(2) TFEU, second subparagraph ...

SECONDARY LEGISLATION

The various legal acts adopted under the Treaties form the European Union's 'secondary legislation'. As specified in Article 288 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, they comprise chiefly:

- Regulations
- Directives
- Decisions

Regulations and *decisions* are directly applicable and binding in all EU Member States. *Directives* on the other hand are binding but not directly applicable: they set out the objectives to be achieved and require the Member States to incorporate them into their national legislation. This incorporation is termed *transposition*. Consequently, only directives are *transposed* into national legislation, but all three types of legal act are *implemented* or *applied*, i.e. given practical effect.

Where such acts are adopted following a legislative procedure, they are termed 'legislative acts'. 'Non-legislative acts' are accordingly those where no legislative procedure is required, for example where power is delegated to the Commission to adopt acts or where the Commission adopts an act to implement a legislative act. In the latter cases (since the Treaty of Lisbon), the act has to include the adjectives *delegated* or *implementing* in its title.

Legal acts also include recommendations and opinions, but these are non-binding.

For matters coming under what were the second and third pillars of the European Union before amendment by the Treaty of Lisbon, the original Treaty on European Union also introduced framework decisions, joint actions and common positions. Following the Lisbon Treaty, however, they are obsolete.

LEGISLATIVE PROCEDURES

Legislative procedures have been overhauled by the Treaty of Lisbon: there is now an ordinary legislative procedure and special legislative procedures.

Ordinary legislative procedure (Article 294 TFEU). Under this procedure, originally introduced as the 'codecision procedure' by the Treaty on European Union, Parliament jointly adopts legislation with the Council. It is described in detail in Article 294 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) and is used for all EU legislation except in cases specifically defined in the TFEU as coming under a 'special legislative procedure'.

Special legislative procedure (Article 289 TFEU). In cases specifically defined in the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, the Council or another institution may adopt legislation on its own. This may involve consulting the European Parliament or obtaining its consent.

TITLES AND NUMBERING

Draft legislation. In relation to EU legislation, the word *draft* denotes that the act in question has not yet been formally approved by the Commission. In the simplest case, it is used to qualify Commission acts (e.g. a draft Commission Regulation) before they are adopted by the Commission. For acts that are proposed by the Commission for adoption by other EU institutions, there is an additional stage in the procedure: Commission departments prepare a *draft proposal* (e.g. draft proposal for a Regulation of the Council and of the European Parliament), which the Commission approves, whereupon the designation *draft* is dropped and the *proposal* is sent to the Council and the European Parliament for discussion and possible adoption.

Draft Commission legislation is accompanied by a *Memorandum to the Commission* (FR: *Communication à la Commission*) while draft proposals for non-Commission acts also include an *Explanatory Memorandum* (*Exposé des motifs*), which is sent with the proposal to the legislator.

All unadopted acts have attached to them a *financial statement* (FR: *fiche financière*) detailing the budget implications and an *impact assessment* (FR: *fiche d'impact*) setting out more general implications.

Numbering of acts. Legal acts are numbered by year and serial number. The serial numbering restarts at the beginning of every year and is separate for each type of act. Since 1999, the year has been written with four digits rather than two. However, this is not retroactive: numbers before 1999 keep the two-digit year.

The number of an act normally constitutes part of its title, but the form this takes differs depending on the type of act. For acts where the serial number comes before the year, the contraction *No* precedes the number. See the following sections for more details.

Regulations. The number of a regulation is an integral part of its title and follows the pattern *[Institution] Regulation (EC) No ##/year*. The citation form is therefore as follows:

- Council Regulation (EC) No 139/2004 on the control of concentrations between undertakings

Until 1967, EEC and Euratom regulations were numbered separately, in cumulative series from 1958 to 1962, and then annually. Since 1 January 1968 they have formed a single series, numbered annually:

- (before 1963) EEC Council Regulation No 17

- (before 1968) Council Regulation No 1009/67/EEC
- (since 1968) Commission Regulation (EEC) No 1234/84

Directives. Directives are issued mainly by the Council and European Parliament and less frequently by the Commission. Since 1 January 1992 the number of a directive has formed an integral part of its title, in the pattern *[Institution] Directive year/number/entity*. The citation form is therefore as follows:

- Commission Directive 2004/29/EC on determining the characteristics and minimum conditions for inspecting vine varieties

Decisions (See also 16.11 below). Decisions comprise acts adopted under Article 288 TFEU (formerly 249 EC). Except for joint decisions (see 16.11 below), they bear no formal number forming part of the title, but are assigned a 'publication number' by the Publications Office. The full citation form is therefore as follows:

- Council Decision of 30 July 2003 on the conclusion of the agreement between the European Community and Canada on trade in wines and spirit drinks (2004/91/EC)

Although it is not formally part of the title, the publication number is regularly used in citing such acts: *Council Decision 2004/91/EC*. Unpublished decisions are identified by date only.

Until the Treaty of Lisbon, there were different words for decisions with an addressee and decisions not addressed to anyone in Danish (*beslutning* and *afgørelse*), Dutch (*beschikking* and *besluit*), German (*Entscheidung* and *Beschluss*) and Slovenian (**odločba** and *sklep*). The second form in each case is now used for all decisions.

Joint acts (Council and Parliament) (See also 16.4). However unwieldy it may appear, and whatever variants you may see in circulation, the 'of the ... and of the ...' formulation below is the only correct one for the titles of joint acts:

- Regulation (EC) No 852/2004 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 29 April 2004 on the hygiene of foodstuffs

Decisions are numbered along the same lines as regulations, e.g.:

Decision No 649/2005/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 13 April 2005 amending Decision No 1419/1999/EC establishing a Community action for the European Capital of Culture event for the years 2005 to 2019

ECSC decisions. ECSC general decisions were equivalent to EEC and Euratom regulations and were given an official serial number that was an integral part of the title (e.g.

Commission Decision No 891/92/ECSC of 30 March 1992 imposing a provisional anti-dumping duty ...).

Framework decisions, joint actions, common positions. These were legal acts adopted in the areas of common foreign and security policy and justice and home affairs (Titles V and VI respectively of the Treaty on European Union before amendment by the Treaty of Lisbon). Their citation forms are as follows:

- Council Framework Decision 2001/68/JHA of 22 December 2003 on combating the sexual exploitation of children and child pornography
- Council Joint Action 2004/523/CFSP of 28 June 2004 on the European Union Rule of Law Mission in Georgia
- Council Common Position 2004/698/CFSP of 14 October 2004 concerning the lifting of restrictive measures against Libya

Multiple references. When referring to several acts together, follow the pattern below:

- Regulations (EC) Nos 1234/96 and 1235/96
- Directives 96/100/EC and 96/350/EC

Abbreviated references. Use abbreviations only in footnotes or when space is at a premium:

- Reg. 1234/85, Dir. 84/321, Dec. 3289/75, Dec. 74/612

Amendments. Legal acts are as a rule amended by the same institution as adopted the original act, in which case the name of the institution is not repeated in the title of the amended act. The date of the original act is also omitted, but the rest of its title is quoted in full:

Regulation (EC) No 1934/2004 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 27 October 2004 amending Regulation (EC) No 1726/2000 on development cooperation with South Africa

STRUCTURE OF ACTS

Opening text. The preambles to regulations, directives, and decisions start with a line in capitals identifying the institution and ending with a comma:

- THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT AND THE COUNCIL OF THE EUROPEAN UNION,
- THE COUNCIL OF THE EUROPEAN UNION,
- THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION,

Citations. The opening text is followed by the citations (FR: *visas*), stating the legal basis for the act and listing the procedural steps; these begin *Having regard to ...* and also end in a comma (here for a Regulation of the Council and of the European Parliament):

- Having regard to the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, and in particular Article [...] thereof,
- Having regard to the proposal from the Commission,
- Having regard to the notification to the national Parliaments,
- Having regard to the opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee,
- Having regard to the opinion of the Committee of the Regions,
- Acting in accordance with the ordinary legislative procedure,

Recitals. Next come the recitals (FR: *considérants*), stating the grounds on which the act is based. The block of recitals begins with a single Whereas followed by a colon and a new paragraph. The recitals which follow are numbered sequentially using Arabic numerals within round brackets. Each recital, including the first, begins with a leading capital and ends with a full stop, except for the last (or a sole) recital, which ends in a comma. Sentences within a given recital are separated by full stops.

References to other acts. Previous acts referred to in citations and recitals must be given their full title (institution, type of instrument, number, date, title) on first occurrence and must carry a footnote with OJ reference after the descriptive title. In less formal contexts it is not necessary to give the date of the act; this is invariably cited in French but tends to clutter up the sentence to no good purpose. There are some exceptions to the above rules:

- amendments to the principal acts cited (type and number only):
 - Whereas Commission Regulation (EEC) No ####/## of (date) on ... as (last) amended by Regulation (EEC) No xxxx/xx, provides ...
- where the title/content is paraphrased to shorten recitals:
 - Whereas the Commission has adopted, in connection with the Christmas and New Year holidays, Regulation (EEC) No 2956/84 dealing with the sale of butter from public stocks at a reduced price ...

Enacting formula. Preambles close with a line in capitals continuing the enacting formula, ending with a colon:

- HAS/HAVE ADOPTED THIS REGULATION/DIRECTIVE/DECISION:

Following the Treaty of Lisbon, the formula ‘has/have decided as follows’ is no longer used for legislative acts, but is still used for internal Commission decisions that have no addressees and do not produce legal effects for third parties.

Enacting terms. The French term *Article premier* is rendered *Article 1*. Certain acts have only one article, the *Sole Article*.

A reference such as *Article 198a* is not to a subdivision but to an article subsequently inserted after Article 198. In English, the letter is always in lower case and closed up to the number. In some languages, such articles are numbered *Article 1 bis* (*ter, quater, quinquies, etc.*). When translating, use the English form.

Regulations have a final article stating when they enter into force and, in some instances, the details of the date or dates from which they apply.

That final article is followed by the sentence:

- This Regulation shall be binding in its entirety and directly applicable in all Member States.

Directives usually conclude with an article giving details of the arrangements for transposition followed by one stating when they enter into force and a final one stating to whom they are addressed.

Likewise, Decisions may conclude with articles giving details of their application and their addressees.

Place of enactment. Legislation issued by the Commission is always *Done at Brussels, [date]*, while in draft Council legislation the place name is left blank (*Done at ...*) since the ministers may not be meeting in Brussels when the instrument is finally adopted.

REFERRING TO SUBDIVISIONS OF ACTS

The subdivisions of acts are explained in a table in the Interinstitutional Style Guide.

Recitals. Numbered recitals are referred to as ‘recital 1, 2, 3’, etc. Note that the numbers are not enclosed in brackets in such references. Any unnumbered recitals are cited as ‘the first, second, third recital’ and so on.

Numbered and unnumbered subdivisions. The rules for citing subdivisions of articles in secondary legislation are the same as for treaties.

French terminology. The French word *paragraphe* always means a numbered paragraph; *alinéa* is an unnumbered sub-unit. If an article has no numbered subdivisions, *alinéa* is rendered in English as *paragraph* (first, second, etc.). If the *alinéa* is part of a numbered paragraph, it is rendered as *subparagraph*.

Avoid abbreviating *Article* to *Art.* wherever possible. Also do not use the § sign (section mark) for EU legislation: for example, *l'article 3 §1* should read *Article 3(1)* in English.

THE EU INSTITUTIONS

COMMISSION

Title. The European Commission (before the Treaty of Lisbon, Commission of the European Communities) is governed by Articles 244 to 250 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. Where the context is clear, it may also be referred to as just 'the Commission'. Note that the abbreviation EC may also refer to *European Community* in historical references, so should be avoided in such cases.

Titles of Members. The word *Commissioner* should not be used in legal texts but is acceptable in other less formal, journalistic-type texts, such as press releases and especially headlines (where the more formal designations sound stilted). *Mr Z, Commission Member*, can also be used in less formal texts. The established forms are:

- Mr X, President of the Commission, ...
- Ms Y, Vice-President, ...
- Mr Z, Member of the Commission responsible for ...
- Ms Z (Member of the Commission)

Usually *Mr Z* on its own is sufficient in English.

Cabinets. Each Commissioner has a private office called a 'cabinet', headed by a 'Head of Cabinet' (the French title *Chef de cabinet* is now no longer used in English). Formal references should follow the model 'Ms Smith, Head of Cabinet to X, Member of the Commission'.

Commission meetings. The Members of the Commission hold a weekly meeting (*réunion*), normally on Wednesdays and sometimes divided into sittings (*séances*). The Commission adopts its proposals either at its meetings or by written procedure and *presents* (or *transmits* or *sends*) them to the Council. For a more detailed account of its decision-making arrangements, see the Commission's Rules of Procedure.

Referring to the Commission. The term 'the Commission' may mean just the members of the Commission collectively (also known as the College of Commissioners, or College for short, the body ultimately responsible for Commission decisions) but it may also refer to the Commission as an institution. If the context does not make the meaning clear, you will need to be more precise.

Names of Commission departments. The Commission's main administrative divisions — Directorates-General or DGs for short — have self-explanatory names, which are frequently abbreviated, e.g. EMPL or DG EMPL. The abbreviated forms are supposed to be for the Commission's internal use only but some of them are becoming current elsewhere. Details and organisation charts of all Commission departments (including Eurostat and the Publications Office) can be found on the Commission's website.

If the reader cannot be expected to know what 'DG' means, write out the name in full, at least to begin with, e.g. the Directorate-General for Employment and Social Affairs.

Services of the Commission. The Commission has a Legal Service and an Internal Audit Service, which are thus Services of the Commission. In Commission usage, however, 'service' can also mean any department of the Commission administration, e.g. a DG, office, or unit. These are services of the Commission or Commission services. Note the capitalisation.

Other commissions. Guard against confusion with the *UN Economic Commission for Europe* (EN: *ECE*, FR: *CEE*) based in Geneva and the *European Commission of Human Rights* based in Strasbourg.

COUNCIL

The work and composition of the Council are defined in Articles 237 to 243 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. The work of the Permanent Representatives is defined in Article 240(1).

Title. Generally write the *Council*; use *Council of the European Union* only in formal contexts or to distinguish from other councils (see below) where required.

General Secretariat. The Council has a *General Secretariat* (NB: not a Secretariat-General) headed by a Secretary-General, and conducts its business via committees and working parties.

Referring to Council meetings (FR: *sessions*):

- the Council meeting of 22 May (one day)
- the Council meeting of 22 and 23 May (two days)
- the Council meeting of 22/23 May (overnight)
- the Council meeting of 22 to 24 May (three days)

Meetings lasting more than one day have sittings (FR: *séances*) referred to by date: the *Council sitting of 22 May*.

The Council meets in what are termed ‘configurations’ to discuss particular policy areas. These meetings are normally attended by the national ministers holding the corresponding portfolio, though other matters may also be discussed.

The Council also holds informal meetings to discuss matters which do not lie within its responsibilities under the Treaties. For a more detailed account, see the Council’s Rules of Procedure.

The chair. The chair at Council meetings is taken by the minister whose country holds the Presidency at the time. His/her name appears above *The President* on any EU legislation adopted at the meeting. Avoid *the President of the Council* in reports on the meeting, however, and write either *the minister presiding* or his/her name, adding (*President*). The Presidency changes every six months on 1 January and 1 July.

Do not confuse the Council with the following institutions:

- *the European Council* (see below)
- *the ACP-EC Council of Ministers* under the Cotonou Convention
- *the Council of Europe*, a non-EU body based in Strasbourg

EUROPEAN COUNCIL

Made into a European institution in its own right by the Treaty of Lisbon, the European Council comprises the Heads of State or Government of the Member States, together with its President (a new post introduced by the Treaty of Lisbon) and the President of the Commission. Its functions are set out in Article 15 of the revised EU Treaty and in Articles 325 and 326 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union.

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

The work and composition of the European Parliament are defined in Articles 223 to 234 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. For more detailed information on voting and other procedures, see Parliament’s Rules of Procedure.

Title. Refer to the European Parliament simply as *Parliament* (no definite article) unless confusion with national parliaments is possible. If the context is clear, you may also use the abbreviation EP.

Sessions. Parliamentary sessions (FR: *sessions*) run from one year to the next, e.g. the 2004/05 session. These are divided into *part-sessions*, e.g. part-session from 12 to 15 January 2004 (FR: *séances du 12 au 15 janvier*).

Sitting. Each day’s *sitting* (FR: *séance*) during a part-session is referred to by the day on which it commences, whether or not it goes on past midnight.

The Secretariat. This is headed by the *Secretary-General*. If necessary, to avoid confusion with other secretariats it may be called the *General Secretariat*.

The Bureau. This consists of the President and Vice-Presidents of Parliament. The Cabinet du Président is the President's Office. The quaestors are responsible for administrative and financial matters concerning Members.

MEPs. Members are identified in English by the letters MEP after their name. A full list of MEPs with their national party affiliations is given on Parliament's website.

English titles of committees are available on the website. Note that there is a *Committee on Budgets* as well as a *Committee on Budgetary Control*.

Written questions. Answers should be headed *Answer given by (Commission Member's name) on behalf of the Commission*, followed by the date of the answer. The MEP putting the question is referred to as *the Honourable Member*, other MEPs by name.

Debates. Parliament's debates up to the end of the fourth Parliamentary term (May 1999) are available in paper form as annexes to the Official Journal. From April 1996, they are available online.

COURT OF JUSTICE OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

Following the Treaty of Lisbon, the Court of Justice of the European Union (CJEU) includes the Court of Justice, the General Court (previously the Court of First Instance) and specialised courts.

Constitution of the Court. The Court currently comprises the Court of Justice, the General Court and the Civil Service Tribunal. The relationship between these is laid down by the Court's Statute.

Court of Justice. Originally established in 1952, the Court of Justice is the highest authority on matters of EU law. A primary task is to ensure that the law is uniformly applied in all the Member States through preliminary rulings.

General Court (previously Court of First Instance). This was established in 1988 to relieve the Court of Justice of some of its workload. Its judgments are subject to appeal to the Court of Justice, but only on points of law.

Civil Service Tribunal. A specialised court, the CST was established in 2004 to deal with disputes between EU bodies and their staff, which had previously been under the Court of Justice's and then the (then) Court of First Instances's jurisdiction. Appeals against the Tribunal are heard by the General Court.

Citation of cases. NB: the information here applies to practice before entry into force of the Treaty of Lisbon.

Note that EN usage in the European Court Reports (ECR) is quite different from FR usage.

Cases from before the establishment of the Court of First Instance (now General Court) are cited as follows:

- Case 13/72 *Netherlands v Commission* [1973] ECR 27 (where 13/72 means case 13 of 1972, [1973] is the year of publication in the European court reports (ECR) and 27 is the page number. The parties' names are in italics, but not the 'v'.)

Since then, Court of Justice and Court of First Instance (CFI) cases have been published in separate ECR volumes, which is reflected in the citation:

- Case C-287/87 *Commission v Greece* [1990] ECR I-125 (Note the case number is prefixed 'C' for Court of Justice. The page number (125) is preceded by I because Court of Justice cases are published in section I of the court reports.)
- Case T-27/89 *Sklias v Commission* [1990] ECR II-269 (The case number is prefixed 'T' for *Tribunal de première instance*. The page number (269) is preceded by II because CFI cases are published in section II of the court reports.)

From 1989 up to the creation of the CST, staff cases were recorded in a separate series of the ECR (ECR-SC) (and in Section II containing CFI cases). Staff cases from this period are quoted as follows:

- Case T-13/95 *Kyrpitsis v ESC* [1996] ECR-SC I-A-167 and II-503

In cases heard by the CST, the case number is prefixed 'F' for *fonction publique* but otherwise cases should be quoted as before. A fictional example would be:

- Case F-1/07 *X v Council* [2008] ECR-SC I-0000

In most circumstances, there is no need in English to cite the date of a judgment or an order (unless the case has not yet been published or it is one in a series of orders in a single case).

Page numbering. The page number in the ECR on which a judgment begins has been the same in the French and English versions since 1969 only. Use the EUR-Lex database to check that you have the right page number for references to the English version before that date.

Make clear the distinctions between the Court of Justice of the European Union in Luxembourg, the European Court of Human Rights in Strasbourg and the International Court of Justice in The Hague. Avoid formulations such as *the Court* if confusion of, say, the Court of Justice with the General Court or the Court of Auditors is possible.

COURT OF AUDITORS

The work of the Court of Auditors is defined in Articles 285 to 287 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. There is no abbreviated form for its title.

Annual reports. The Court of Auditors' annual reports are published in the Official Journal. Special reports are also issued, but these are not always published and can be difficult to obtain, particularly if they deal with sensitive issues. The Commission replies formally to annual reports.

EUROPEAN ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMITTEE

The Economic and Social Committee is governed by Articles 300 to 304 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. On 17 July 2002 it decided to add the word 'European' to its title. Although this does not appear in the Treaty, it is appropriate to use it.

Do not confuse this Committee with the UN Economic and Social Council, of which the Economic Commission for Europe is a regional subdivision

A *Secretary-General* heads the *Secretariat-General*. Preparatory work for the plenary sessions in Brussels is carried out by sections devoted to individual policy areas.

The Committee elects a President and officers for a two-year term, and the groups and sections now also have presidents.

As well as giving opinions on draft EU legislation, the Committee can initiate opinions and studies of its own. Its rules of procedure can be found on its website.

COMMITTEE OF THE REGIONS

The Committee of the Regions is governed by Articles 300 and 305 to 307 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union.

A full account of its composition and activities can be found on its website, as can its rules of procedure and a list of the Commissions that prepare its work.

EUROPEAN CENTRAL BANK

Now a European institution in its own right following the Treaty of Lisbon, the European Central Bank (ECB) is the central bank for the EU's single currency, the euro, and its main job is to maintain its purchasing power and thus price stability in the euro area. More specifically, the basic tasks of the ECB are to manage the volume of money in circulation, conduct foreign-exchange operations, hold and manage the Member States' official foreign-exchange reserves, and promote the smooth operation of payment systems.

The ECB was established on 30 June 1998, in accordance with its Statute. Its decision-making bodies are its *Governing Council*, *Executive Board* and *General Council*.

OTHER FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

European Investment Bank. The European Investment Bank (EIB) was established by the Treaty of Rome. Its main business is making or guaranteeing loans for investment projects. Capital is subscribed by Member States, but principally the EIB borrows on the market by issuing bonds. It provides financial support for projects that embody EU objectives in the Member States and in many other countries throughout the world. The Bank has a *Board of Governors*, a *Board of Directors*, a *Management Committee* and an *Audit Committee*.

European Investment Fund. The European Investment Fund (EIF) is an institution whose main objective is to support the creation, growth and development of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). It provides risk capital and guarantee instruments, using either its own funds or those available under mandates from the EIB or the European Union.

The EIF has a tripartite shareholding, which includes the EIB, the European Union represented by the European Commission, and a number of European banks and financial institutions, from both the public and private sector. The EIF acts in a complementary role to its majority shareholder, the EIB.

AGENCIES

Over the years the EU has spawned a number of agencies to perform specific technical, scientific or managerial tasks. Participation in the agencies is not necessarily restricted to the Member States of the EU.

REFERENCES TO OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

THE OFFICIAL JOURNAL

General. The full name of the Official Journal is *Official Journal of the European Union* and its official abbreviation in references is 'OJ'. It is published in three series, 'L', 'C' and 'S', each serving different purposes. The L series contains EU legislation, the C series EU notices and information and the S series public procurement notices. Notices of recruitment competitions and some vacancy notices are published in separate 'A' issues of the C series (numbered, for example, 'C227A').

From 1 July 2013 the electronic edition of the Official Journal is considered authentic and has legal effect.

OJ references in running text. The abbreviation 'No' should be omitted from references to OJ numbers, whether in the OJ itself or in other work, including in references that predate the introduction of this convention. They should thus follow the pattern:

- Official Journal (or OJ) L 118 of 4 May 1973

OJ footnote references — abbreviated form. Footnote references in the OJ itself have a shortened form for the date:

- OJ L 281, 1.5.1975, p. 1.

Use this form for OJ footnote references elsewhere as well and in texts destined for the OJ, especially legislation, the budget ('Remarks' column), answers to parliamentary written questions and amendments to the Combined Nomenclature.

Page references following an oblique stroke (e.g. OJ L 262/68) are used only in page headings of the OJ itself, and should be avoided in all other contexts.

BULLETIN AND GENERAL REPORT

Bulletin. References to the Bulletin take the form:

- Bull. 9-1980, point 1.3.4
- Supplement 5/79 — Bull.

Note, however, that publication of the Bulletin ceased in September 2009.

General Report. References to the General Report take the form:

- Twenty-third General Report, point 383; 1994 General Report, point 12
- Point 104 of this Report
- 1990 Annexed Memorandum, point 38

The form ‘Twenty-seventh (or XXVIIth) General Report’ was used up to and including 1993. As from 1994, the title on the cover is ‘General Report 1994’ and the reference style ‘1994 General Report’. The above forms of reference are standard for footnotes in official publications, but in less formal contexts it is quite acceptable (and clearer) to refer to e.g. ‘the 1990 General Report’.

Part-numbering conventions. Note that *Première (Deuxième, Troisième) partie* are rendered *Part One (Two, Three)*, not *Part I* or *Part 1*.

EU FINANCES

Own resources. The European Union and its institutions are essentially funded from own resources, i.e. revenue that the EU receives as of right. These fall into three categories: traditional own resources (customs duties, agricultural duties and sugar levies), a VAT-based resource (a proportion of each Member State’s harmonised VAT base), and a resource based on Member States’ gross national income. The GNI-based resource is variable, being designed to ‘top-up’ the revenue obtained from the other sources in order to meet expenditure for a given year. A special mechanism for correcting the budgetary imbalance of the United Kingdom (the UK rebate) is also part of the own resources system.

Financial perspective. The financial perspective (perspectives financières) is a mechanism whereby Parliament, the Council and the Commission agree in advance on the main budgetary priorities for the following period, defining the revenue and expenditure ceilings within which each annual budget is drawn up. A financial perspective is drawn up to cover a seven-year period (e.g. 2000 to 2006, 2007 to 2013).

BUDGET

Title and parts. The General Budget of the European Union, which does not include the European Development Fund (see 19.10), is often simply called *the budget* (note lower case). The word 'budget' is usually preferable to 'budgetary' in adjectival usage (*budget heading, budget year, budget expenditure*), but note 'budgetary authority' (the Council and Parliament acting in tandem) and Parliament's 'Committee on Budgetary Control'.

The principles underlying the budget and the rules governing it are contained in the Financial Regulation (Council Regulation (EC, Euratom) No 1605/2002) and subsequent implementing regulations. Title III of that Regulation sets out the procedure for drawing up and approving the budget.

The preliminary draft budget prepared by the Commission becomes the draft budget after a first reading by the Council. The draft goes to Parliament for a first reading; Parliament makes amendments (*amendements*) to non-compulsory expenditure and proposes modifications (*modifications*) to compulsory expenditure. Each institution in turn gives the draft a second reading. For details of this procedure, see Chapter 3 (the EU's Annual Budget) of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union.

Each EU institution has its own section of the budget, divided into revenue and expenditure and then into titles, chapters, articles and items. The Commission budget is by far the largest and is published in a separate volume. The expenditure section is divided by policy area, with administrative expenditure allocated to the individual titles.

Expenditure and appropriations. All expenditure is either compulsory (*dépenses obligatoires*), i.e. derived from the Treaties, or non-compulsory (*dépenses non-obligatoires*). Compulsory spending is mainly on agriculture.

Most funds allocated to EU policies are operating appropriations (*crédits opérationnels*), usually differentiated (*crédits dissociés*) where operations span several years. Headings then contain two amounts: payment appropriations (*crédits de paiement*) and commitment appropriations (*crédits d'engagement*), with a schedule of projected payments by year. The terms appropriations for commitments (*crédits pour engagements*) and appropriations for payments (*crédits pour paiements*) are used to designate differentiated plus non-differentiated appropriations.

Note that the EU is in the process of switching to activity-based budgeting (*budget sur base d'activités*) and accrual accounting (*comptabilité d'exercice*).

Unused appropriations. As a rule all unused appropriations lapse (*sont annulés*) at the end of the year. Carryovers (reports) require a special decision. When commitments are cancelled (*dégagés*) because projects are abandoned, the appropriations lapse but may be made available again (*reconstitués*) by special decision of the budgetary authority.

FUNDS FINANCED FROM THE BUDGET

Agricultural Funds. The common agricultural policy (CAP) is financed by the European Agricultural Guarantee Fund (EAGF), which finances direct payments to farmers and measures to regulate agricultural markets such as intervention and export refunds, and the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD), which finances the Member States' rural development programmes. Although these two funds have now replaced the former European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF), you should note that many documents relating, for example, to disputed payments and financial corrections still refer back to the EAGGF.

Structural Funds. Structural assistance is provided through the Structural Funds (note capitals), which comprise the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) and the European Social Fund (ESF). The EAGGF (Guidance Section) and the Financial Instrument for Fisheries Guidance (FIFG) were previously also classed as Structural Funds, but have now been replaced by the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD) and the European Fisheries Fund (EFF), which now form part of the common agricultural and fisheries policies, respectively. For more details, see also the Commission's regional policy website.

Cohesion Fund. The purpose of the Cohesion Fund is to support projects designed to improve the environment and develop transport infrastructure in Member States whose per capita GNP is below 90 % of the EU average.

OTHER FUNDS

European Investment Fund. The European Investment Fund (EIF) secures financing for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs).

European Development Fund. The European Development Fund (EDF) finances most of the EU's cooperation with developing countries. The Fund is fed by the Member States; it does not come under the general EU budget, though a heading has been reserved for it in the budget since 1993. The EDF is not a permanent fund; a new one is concluded every five years or so.

MEMBER STATES

When translating a document that lists the Member States in alphabetical order, rearrange the list into English alphabetical order.

If the Member States are listed in protocol order, do not change the order.

The list of Member States in protocol order is as follows:

- Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom

In English, the long forms of country names (full names) should not be used in any but the most formal contexts (unless there is no accepted short form). Even in international treaties, they should be used sparingly, e.g. in the title.

PERMANENT REPRESENTATIONS/REPRESENTATIVES

Titles. For *la Représentation permanente du Danemark* etc. write *the Danish Permanent Representation*. Use *Permanent Representative* only for the person holding that office.

The Permanent Representatives Committee is commonly known under its French acronym *Coreper*. In documents intended for the general public, however, spell out what the acronym means when using it for the first time. *Coreper* has been split into *Coreper 2* (the Permanent Representatives themselves) and *Coreper 1* (deputies) to speed up its work; these designations are only likely to arise in internal Commission papers and may be used without explanation in English translations of them.

NATIONAL PARLIAMENTS

Use the country's own names for its parliamentary institutions only if you are sure your readers will be familiar with them. Otherwise, write *the ... Parliament*, inserting the country adjective. In the case of bicameral systems, write *the lower/upper house of the ... Parliament* if it needs to be specified. However, if a particular parliament is referred to repeatedly, the non-English name may be used, provided it is explained the first time it is introduced. For example, write *the Bundestag (the lower house of the German Parliament)* and thereafter *the Bundestag* in a text where the term occurs many times.

Ireland. Note that the qualifier '*Éireann*' is not needed when referring to *the Dáil* or *the Seanad*.

Parliamentarians. Write *Member of the ... Parliament*, specifying which house if necessary. MP should be used only if the context supports the meaning. Avoid national abbreviations of such titles (e.g. MdB in Germany).

Political parties. Where possible and meaningful, always translate the names of political parties, as this may be important to the reader, but add the national abbreviation in brackets and use this in the rest of the document:

- The German Social Democratic Party (SPD) had serious reservations on this issue. The SPD had in the past ...

NATIONAL JUDICIAL BODIES

Use the suggested translations in the Country Compendium. If necessary, insert the original-language form in brackets following the first mention.

NATIONAL LEGISLATION

For countries that provide reliable translations of their legislation into English (e.g. on the Finlex website in Finland), you should use the terms they use. To ensure consistency at source-language level, you should also consult the Country Compendium for agreed terms and apply the advice given below.

In national legislation, if a provision is numbered *Article 1 bis (ter, quater, etc.)*, do not change it to *Article 1a (b, c, etc.)* unless there is an official English translation that does so, as this would only cause confusion for anyone attempting to find the original. The English versions of many international agreements, conventions, etc. also use this style of numbering.

Translating the titles of legislation. In common law systems (such as those of England and Wales, Northern Ireland, Ireland, the United States, Australia and India), titles of legislative acts customarily appear in a form which is concise, avoids the use of relative clauses, contains few prepositions, and — with the exception of brackets — is largely devoid of punctuation.

Examples:

- *Police (Complaints and Conduct) Act 2012*
- *The European Parliamentary Elections (Returning Officers' and Local Returning Officers' Charges) (Great Britain and Gibraltar) Order 2014*
- *Contract Cleaning Joint Labour Committee Establishment (Amendment) Order 2014*

Titles of legislative acts in other systems (those of most EU Member States) tend to be explicit and descriptive and may contain several relative clauses. Their structure is in some cases governed by rules prescribing the use of specific phrases, prepositions, punctuation, etc.

Examples:

- *Loi modifiant la loi relative à la protection des animaux*
- *Rozporządzenie Ministra Finansów z dnia 24 czerwca 2011 r. zmieniające rozporządzenie w sprawie kryteriów i warunków technicznych, którym muszą odpowiadać kasy rejestrujące oraz warunków ich stosowania*

These descriptive titles can often be neatly translated into English by inverting the word order so that they appear in the more concise form customary in common law countries.

Examples (from French, but equally applicable to many languages):

- *Loi concernant les chèques, Cheques Act*
- *Loi no. 66-537 du 24 juillet 1966 sur les sociétés commerciales, Commercial Business Associations Act No. 66-537 of 24 July 1966*
- *Loi abrogeant l'article 77 du Code civil, Civil Code (Article 77) Repeal Act*
- *Loi modifiant la loi relative à la protection des animaux, Protection of Animals (Amendment) Act*

Alternatively, and in particular if this procedure becomes unmanageable or if you feel the reader might be confused, it may be preferable to follow the structure of the original language:

Example:

- *Loi abrogeant l'article 77 du Code civil, Act repealing Article 77 of the Civil Code*

To avoid a top-heavy or bottom-heavy title it may sometimes be possible to combine these styles, as in the title of this piece of US legislation: *1997 Emergency Supplemental Appropriations Act for Recovery from Natural Disasters, and for Overseas Peacekeeping Efforts, Including Those in Bosnia.*

To sum up, the options for *Loi d'orientation et de programmation relatif à la politique de développement et de solidarité internationale* include:

- the concise common-law format: Development and International Solidarity Policy (Guidance and Planning) Act;
- the descriptive format: Act governing guidance and planning for policy on development and international solidarity;
- a mixed format (here with initial capitalisation to emphasise that it is a title): Guidance and Planning Act for Development and International Solidarity Policy.

When deciding which style to adopt you should always bear in mind the need for consistency, clarity and readability.

Act vs law. Either is acceptable in translations, provided you are consistent.

Note that *act* is a more natural translation for the title of a law, e.g. *la loi sur les sociétés* = *the Companies Act*, while *law* is better in a description, e.g. *la loi sur les sociétés* = *the French law governing companies*.

Bill vs draft act/law. Prefer ‘draft act/law’.

Law gazettes, official gazettes and official journals. For general references to such publications, use these three terms in accordance with the ‘Note to readers’ in Access to legislation in Europe — Guide to the legal gazettes and other official information sources in the European Union and the European Free Trade Association (substituting *law gazette* for *legal gazette*). For references to specific national publications, follow the advice given in the Country Compendium (if any), or the general advice from here. Where an English translation is used in the country itself, it should be preferred to the word-for-word translation used in the above-mentioned guide.

OFFICIAL LANGUAGES AND CURRENCIES

OFFICIAL LANGUAGES

Official/working/procedural languages. The relevant regulations do not distinguish between official and working languages. Internally, however, the Commission works in three languages — English, French and German — unofficially referred to as the ‘procedural languages’. Material generated inside the Commission for internal use only is drafted in one or more of these and, if necessary, is translated only between those three. Similarly, incoming documents in a non-procedural language are translated into one of the procedural languages so that they can be generally understood within the Commission, but are not put into the other official languages.

CURRENCIES

Currency abbreviations. The main currency codes are set out in Annex A7 to the Interinstitutional Style Guide. An exhaustive list of codes can be found in ISO 4217.

The currency abbreviation precedes the amount and is followed by a hard space (Key code for Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word, press Ctrl + Shift + Space.):

- EUR 2 400; USD 2 billion

The symbol also precedes the amount and is followed by a thin space (Key code for Windows: Alt + 8201. However, this does not display correctly on Commission PCs using older versions of Windows and Office. In such cases, insert a hard space (Ctrl + Shift + Space in Word) and then halve the space width (in Word: Format, Font, Character Spacing, Scale = 50 %). If this is not practicable, close up to the amount.):

- € 120 000; £ 78 000; \$ 100 m

Units and subunits. Use a point to separate units from subunits:

- € 7.20; \$ 50.75; EUR 2.4 billion; USD 1.8 billion

The euro. Like ‘pound’, ‘dollar’ or any other currency name in English, the word ‘euro’ is written in lower case with no initial capital. Where appropriate, it takes the plural ‘s’ (as does ‘cent’):

- This book costs ten euros and fifty cents

However, in documents and tables where monetary amounts figure largely, make maximum use of the € symbol or the abbreviation EUR.

EXTERNAL RELATIONS

The terms ‘*external relations*’ or ‘*external policy*’ refer to the Commission’s and the EU’s traditional dealings with non-member countries in the fields of trade, aid and various forms of cooperation. Use ‘foreign policy’ only in the limited context of the common foreign and security policy (CFSP).

Information on individual countries. For names, currencies, capital cities, etc., see the list in Annex A5 to the Interinstitutional Style Guide.

The European Economic Area (EEA), established by the 1991 Agreement on the European Economic Area, extended the ‘free movement’ principles of the then European Communities (now the EU) to the countries of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA), i.e. Iceland, Norway, Switzerland, Finland, Sweden, Austria and Liechtenstein. Switzerland failed to ratify the Agreement and Austria, Finland and Sweden subsequently joined the EU.

Enlargement process. Going by the Commission’s enlargement glossary, an ‘acceding country’ is one that has signed an act of accession, a ‘candidate country’ is one whose application has been officially accepted, whether or not negotiations have started, and a ‘potential candidate country’ is one that has been offered the prospect of membership. The term ‘applicant country’ would describe any country that has applied to join the EU, so is not an official designation as such. The term ‘accession country’ may be used either for countries about to join the EU or those that have just joined it, so should be avoided if there is a danger of misinterpretation. Note that ‘candidate countries’ may include ‘acceding countries’ where no distinction is being made between them.

South-East Europe (Western Balkans). In the context of EU external relations the two terms are used interchangeably to refer collectively to Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Serbia and Montenegro.

Third countries. The term *third country* is used in the Treaties, where it means a country that is not a member of the European Union. This meaning is derived from ‘third country’ in the sense of one not party to an agreement between two other countries. Even more generally, the term is used to denote a country other than two specific countries referred to, e.g. in the context of trade relations. This ambiguity is also compounded by the fact that the term is often incorrectly interpreted to mean ‘third-world country’.

If there is a risk of misunderstanding, therefore, especially in documents intended for the general public, either spell out what the term means or use e.g. ‘non-member/non-EU countries’ where this is meant.

United States of America. Shorten to the *United States* after first mention; *America* and *American* are quite acceptable, but *the States* should generally be avoided. Abbreviate as USA if the proper noun is meant, as US if the adjective is intended. USA is used more widely in other languages; in translation work it is better rendered *the United States*. Note that a singular verb follows in English.

Islam. Islam is the faith, *Muslim* (not *Muhammedan*, *Mohammedan*) a member of that faith. An Islamic country thus has a mainly Muslim population, some of whom may be Islamists (i.e. ‘fundamentalists’).

Middle East. The term *Middle East* now covers the countries around the eastern shores of the Mediterranean, the Arabian Peninsula, and Iran. The term *Near East* has fallen into disuse in English since World War Two. Translate both French *Proche Orient* and *Moyen Orient*, German *Naher Osten* and *Mittlerer Osten*, by *Middle East* — unless, of course, the source text contrasts the two regions.

International organisations. The best source is *The Yearbook of International Organisations*.

United Nations. Use the abbreviation UN, not UNO. See also *Everyman’s UN*.

GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade). The term *the GATT* refers to the Agreement, which is still in force, while *GATT* without the article refers to the now defunct organisation, superseded by the World Trade Organisation (WTO). While GATT had *Contracting Parties*, the WTO has *Members*. The WTO administers not only the GATT but also the GATS — the General Agreement on Trade in Services — as well as a host of other Understandings, Agreements and Arrangements on specific topics. The WTO is not to be confused with the WCO, or World Customs Organisation, formerly known as the Customs Cooperation Council.

OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development). The ‘Conseil des ministres’ is called simply ‘the OECD Council’.

TRANSLITERATION

TRANSLITERATION TABLE FOR GREEK

- **NAME >>> LETTER >>> UN 1987 (ELOT 743) >>> VARIANTS**
- alpha >>> Α >>> α >>> a
- beta >>> Β >>> β >>> v
- gamma >>> Γ >>> γ >>> g
- + gamma >>> >>> γγ >>> ng
- + kappa >>> >>> γκ >>> gk >>> g (initial), nk (medial + final)
- + xi >>> >>> γξ >>> nx
- + chi >>> >>> γχ >>> nch
- delta >>> Δ >>> δ >>> d
- epsilon >>> Ε >>> ε >>> e
- zeta >>> Ζ >>> ζ >>> z
- eta >>> Η >>> η >>> i
- theta >>> Θ >>> θ >>> th
- iota >>> Ι >>> ι >>> i
- kappa >>> Κ >>> κ >>> k
- lambda >>> Λ >>> λ >>> l
- mu >>> Μ >>> μ >>> m
- + pi >>> >>> μπ >>> b (initial + final), mp (medial)
- nu >>> Ν >>> ν >>> n
- + tau >>> >>> ντ >>> nt >>> d (initial + final), nt (medial)
- xi >>> Ξ >>> ξ >>> x

- omicron >>> O >>> o >>> o
- pi >>> Π >>> π >>> p
- rho >>> Ρ >>> ρ >>> r
- sigma >>> Σ >>> σ, ς >>> s
- tau >>> Τ >>> τ >>> t
- upsilon >>> Υ >>> υ >>> y [u in ou – see below]
- phi >>> Φ >>> φ >>> f
- chi >>> Χ >>> χ >>> ch
- psi >>> Ψ >>> ψ >>> ps
- omega >>> Ω >>> ω >>> o

Diphthongs

- alpha, epsilon, eta + upsilon >>> αυ, ευ [ηυ – rare] άυ, αϋ, etc. >>> av, ev [iv – rare] af, ef, [if – rare] άy, ay, etc. >>> Before β, γ, δ, ζ, λ, μ, ν, ρ, or vowel Before θ, κ, ξ, π, σ, τ, φ, χ, ψ, and final See footnote 2 on accents
- omicron + upsilon >>> ου [όυ, οϋ – rare] >>> ou [όy, οϋ – rare]
- alpha, epsilon, omicron + iota >>> αι, αϊ ει, εϊ οι, οϊ >>> ai, ai ei, ei oi, oi
- upsilon iota >>> υι >>> yi

NOTES

1) **General rule.** Always use the ELOT 743 standard [Its use was approved by a European Community interinstitutional working party in 1987 and, for the purposes of romanising geographical names, by the UN (<http://www.eki.ee/wgrs/>) and the relevant US/UK bodies (http://www.pcg.org.uk/Romanisation_systems.htm).] — including accents — to romanise Greek place names and in any text that is to be published as an official act (except where notes 3 or 4 apply).

In other texts, a variant may be more appropriate in some circumstances (a few specific cases are described in notes 2, 3, and 4).

2) **Include accents where feasible.** When a source text other than an official act does not indicate accents [An acute accent is used in Greek to indicate stress, and in syllables of two

vowels the accent usually appears over the second vowel. However, when romanising upsilon as v/f in the syllables αύ, εύ, ηύ, move the accent forward to the vowel, e.g. αύ = άν/άf. All other accented combinations follow the rules for each separate character, e.g. άυ = άy, αϋ = ай.], they may be omitted in the English if it is impossible to determine the correct position or if doing so would involve disproportionate effort.

3) **Names.** If you know that someone romanises their own name differently from ELOT, use their spelling (for example, Yorgos or George for Γεώργιος). See also note 4.

4) **Classical forms.** In some circumstances the classical form may be more appropriate, e.g. Cyclades rather than Kykládes for Κυκλάδες. By the same token, the (ancient) Athenian statesman should be written Pericles, while a modern Greek with the same name would normally be Periklís unless, of course, he himself uses the ‘ancient’ spelling.

5) **Double letters.** There is no reason to transcribe a single σ between vowels as ‘ss’, e.g. Vassilis for Βασίλης, even though this is often seen. Take care with foreign names, however, as double letters are usually rendered in Greek by a single letter, even if pronounced double in the original language, e.g. Καναλέτο for Canaletto.

6) **Original orthography of foreign names.** The original spelling of foreign names transliterated into Greek is not always obvious and will often require some research. Ντάκα, for instance, is the capital of Μπανγκλαντές (Dhaka, Bangladesh). The Greek rendering τσ for the sounds ‘ch’ (as in ‘china’) and ‘ts’ can pose particular difficulty: Ντόμπριτς is the Greek rendering of the Bulgarian town of Dobrich — Добрич (not ‘Dobrits’), but Βράτσα is indeed Vratsa — Браца (and not ‘Vracha’).

7) Examples of Greek letters used to represent non-Greek sounds:

- σ >>> sh (EN), ch (FR), sci/sce (IT), sch (DE), sz (PL), š (CS)
- τσ >>> ch, tch (EN), ce/ci (IT), tsch (DE), cs (HU), č (CS)
- ζ >>> j (FR), zs (HU), ž (CS)
- τζ >>> j (EN), gi/ge (IT), c (Turkish), xh (Albanian)
- ε >>> ö (DE), ø (DA)
- ι >>> u (FR tu), ü (DE), y (DA)
- (γ)ου >>> w (EN)

8) Examples of hellenised foreign names:

- Auschwitz >>> Άουσβιτς
- Maxwell >>> Μάξγουελ

- Bruges >>> Μπριζ
- Nietzsche >>> Νίτσε
- Chekhov >>> Τσέχωφ/Τσέχοφ
- Sarajevo >>> Σαράγιεβο/Σαράγεβο
- Eisenhower >>> Αϊζενχάουερ
- Schoenberg >>> Σένμπεργκ
- Goethe >>> Γκέτε/Γκαίτε
- Vaughan >>> Βοβ
- Hoxha >>> Χότζα
- Wyoming >>> Ουαϊόμινγκ

TRANSLITERATION TABLE FOR CYRILLIC

(Belarusian, Bulgarian, Macedonian, Russian, Ukrainian and Serbian)

For each of the Slavic languages written in Cyrillic there are a number of different romanisation systems used for different purposes: in academic writing on Slavic linguistics; for library and museum cataloguing; for rendering Slavic names in news articles; for maps, road signs, passports and birth certificates, and so on. As a result, there is considerable variety and inconsistency encountered in practice: for example, the Belarusian city of Магілёў is variously transliterated as Mahiloŭ, Mahilyow, Mahilëŭ, Mahili oŭ, Mahilëw, Maglëŭ, Mahilioŭ and Mahilioŭ, and while one Ukrainian Юлія may transliterate herself Yulia, another will use Yuliya, another Yuliia and yet another Iuliia.

The systems recommended here are based on official systems in use in the respective countries. As the systems are language-specific, care should be taken to use the right transliteration system for the right language: for example, a Russian 'Ольга' is 'Olga', but a Ukrainian one is 'Olha'.

If not available on the keyboard you are using, accented letters such as đ, ž and ů can be found by using the Insert Symbol menu in Word.

While these transliteration rules can be reliably applied in most cases, it may sometimes be appropriate to deviate from them, for example:

- where there is a more familiar established spelling: ‘София’ > ‘Sofia’ (not ‘Sofiya’), ‘България’ > ‘Bulgaria’ (not ‘Balgariya’), ‘Чайковский’ > ‘Tchaikovsky’ (not ‘Chaykovski’);
- where an individual habitually uses a different spelling: e.g. the Bulgarian politician ‘Иван Станчов’ himself uses the spelling ‘Ivan Stancioff’ rather than ‘Ivan Stanchov’;
- for foreign names from languages not written in Cyrillic, in which case rather than being transliterated directly from the Cyrillic the name should be given in its native form correctly spelled (for languages usually written in the Latin alphabet) or in the form conventionally used in English (for other languages); for familiar names this will be obvious, for others it may require a little research: ‘Кишинёв’ (RU) > ‘Chişinău’, ‘Кошиці’ (UK) > ‘Košice’, ‘Солун’ (BG/MK/SR) > ‘Thessaloniki’, ‘Ахмадинежад’ (RU) > ‘Ahmadinejad’, ‘Чунцин’ (RU) > ‘Chongqing’, ‘Пан Ѓи Мун’ (UK) > ‘Ban Ki-moon’.

• **Letter >>> BE >>> BG >>> MK >>> RU >>> UK >>> SR***

- Aa >>> a
- Бб >>> b
- Вв >>> v
- Гг >>> h >>> g >>> g >>> h/gh1 >>> g
- Ѓѓ >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> g >>> -
- Дд >>> d
- Ђђ >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> Đđ2
- Ѓѓ >>> - >>> - >>> gj >>> - >>> - >>> -
- Ее >>> je3/ie >>> e >>> e >>> ye4/e >>> e >>> e
- Ёё >>> jo3/io >>> - >>> - >>> yo4/o >>> - >>> -
- Ѓѓ >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> ye5/ie >>> -
- Жж >>> ž >>> zh >>> zh >>> zh >>> zh >>> ž
- Зз >>> z >>> Ss >>> - >>> - >>> dz >>> - >>> - >>> -

- Ии >>> - >>> i >>> i >>> i6 >>> y >>> i
- Іі >>> i >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> i >>> -
- Її >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> yі5/i >>> -
- Ъй >>> j >>> y >>> y >>> y5/i >>> -
- Јј >>> - >>> - >>> j >>> - >>> - >>> j
- Кк >>> k
- Лл >>> l
- Љљ >>> - >>> - >>> lj >>> - >>> - >>> lj
- Мм >>> m
- Нн >>> n
- Њњ >>> - >>> - >>> nj >>> - >>> - >>> nj
- Оо >>> o
- Пп >>> p
- Рр >>> r
- Сс >>> s
- Тт >>> t

1 When preceded by з to avoid confusion with the digraph 'zh' that represents ж: for example, Згорани becomes Zghorany.

2 The transliteration 'dj' is sometimes seen but considered incorrect, so for Ђоковић write Đoković, not Djoković.

3 Initially and after a vowel, apostrophe, soft sign or ѣ.

4 Initially and after vowel.

5 Initially.

6 The combination 'ий' should be transliterated as 'i' in Russian, but as 'yi' in Ukrainian.

- **Letter >>> BE >>> BG >>> MK >>> RU >>> UK >>> SR***

- Ћћ >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> ć
- Ќќ >>> - >>> - >>> kj >>> - >>> - >>> -
- Уу >>> u
- Ўў >>> ŭ >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> -
- Фф >>> f
- Хх >>> ch >>> h >>> h >>> kh >>> kh >>> h
- Цц >>> c >>> ts >>> ts >>> ts >>> ts >>> c
- Чч >>> č >>> ch >>> ch >>> ch >>> ch >>> č
- Џџ >>> - >>> - >>> dzh >>> - >>> - >>> dž
- Шш >>> š >>> sh >>> sh >>> sh >>> sh >>> š
- Щщ >>> - >>> sht >>> - >>> shch >>> shch >>> -
- Ђђ >>> - >>> a >>> - >>> omit >>> - >>> -
- Љљ >>> y >>> - >>> - >>> y1 >>> - >>> -
- Љљ >>> acute accent2 >>> y >>> - >>> omit >>> omit >>> -
- Ээ >>> e >>> - >>> - >>> e >>> - >>> -
- Юю >>> ju3/iu >>> yu >>> - >>> yu >>> yu4/iu >>> -
- Яя >>> ja3/ia >>> ya5 >>> - >>> ya >>> ya4/ia >>> -
- ' (apostrophe) >>> omit >>> - >>> - >>> - >>> omit >>> -

* Serbian is unusual in being a language with complete synchronic digraphia, with speakers using both Cyrillic and Latin alphabets, depending on personal preference, and able to read the two scripts equally well. There is a one-to-one correspondence between the two alphabets, each letter of the Serbian Cyrillic alphabet corresponding to a letter (or combination of two letters) in the Serbian Latin alphabet. The Latin letters given in this table for Serbian are, therefore, not a transliteration as such, but the Latin alphabet version of Serbian.

1 The combination 'џ' should be transliterated as 'y'.

2 Placed over the preceding consonant: , e.g. дџ = dž, зџ = ž, лџ = ĺ, нџ = ħ, сџ = ś, цџ = ć.

3 Initially and after a vowel, apostrophe, soft sign or ѣ.

4 Initially.

5 In Bulgarian word-final 'ия' should be transliterated as 'ia': Мария becomes Maria, not Mariya.

FORMS OF ADDRESS

All forms that begin 'Dear' are less formal than those that begin 'Sir/Madam', 'Excellency', etc.

Close 'Yours sincerely' if you are addressing a specific person, whether by name or by position.

Letters to Ambassadors and permanent representatives

Envelop

His/Her Excellency Mr/Ms [name]
Ambassador of [country]¹

His/Her Excellency Ambassador [name]
Head of the Mission of [country] to the European Union/ Permanent Representative of [state] to the European Union

Start

[Your] Excellency,²

or

Sir/Madam,

or

Dear Ambassador,

Close

I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam,
Yours faithfully,

or just

Yours faithfully,

Letters to Ministers

Envelop

For the UK: The Rt Hon³ [name without Mr/Ms] MP [portfolio]

Ireland: His/Her Excellency Mr/Ms [name] TD [portfolio]

Start

Sir/Madam/My Lord,⁴

or

Dear Minister,

or

Dear Home Secretary,⁵

or

Dear Mr/Ms [name],

Close

I remain [or I am], Sir /Madam/My Lord,
Yours faithfully,

or just

Yours faithfully,

or

Yours sincerely,

1 For the US, address envelopes to ‘The Honourable [name without Mr/Ms] the American Ambassador’.

2 For the UK, start ‘Sir’ or ‘Madam’. For all other countries, start ‘[Your] Excellency’. British ambassadors are known as His/Her Excellency within the country to which they are accredited but not in the United Kingdom. It is almost always acceptable to use ‘Dear Ambassador’.

3 All members of the British cabinet are Privy Counsellors, which entitles the holder to the distinction ‘the Right Honourable’. NB: the spelling ‘Councillors’ is also correct but the Privy Council Office prefers ‘Counsellors’.

4 According to rank.

5 The recommended informal style of address is by job title.

Letters to Members of Parliament

Envelop

European Parliament: Mr/Ms [name], Member of the European Parliament

UK backbench MPs: Mr/Ms [name] MP1

Start

Sir/Madam,

or

Dear Mr/Ms [name],

Close

Yours faithfully,

or

Yours sincerely,

Letters to Kings or Queens

Envelop

His Majesty King [name]

or

The King of [country]

Her Majesty Queen [name]

or

The Queen of [country]

Their Majesties the King and the Queen of [country]

Start

Your Majesty²/ Your Majesties,

Close

I have the honour to remain/to be,
Your Majesty's/ Majesties' most obedient servant,

or

... loyal/devoted friend,

Letters to other Heads of State

Envelop

His/Her Excellency Mr/Ms [name]
President of [country]³

Start

Excellency,

or

Mr/Madam President,

Close

I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam,
Yours faithfully,

or just

Yours faithfully,

Letters to Heads of Government

Envelop

His/Her Excellency Mr/Ms [name]
Prime Minister of [country]

For the UK: The Rt Hon³ [name] MP

Start

Excellency,

or

Dear Prime Minister,

For the UK: Dear Prime Minister,

Close

I remain, Sir/Madam,
Yours faithfully,

or just

Yours faithfully,

1 The letters MP follow the name of members of the House of Commons. Use MSP for members of the Scottish Parliament, AM for members of the National Assembly for Wales, MLA for members of the Northern Ireland Assembly and TD for members of Dáil Éireann (Ireland).

2 For the UK, letters to the Queen should begin 'Madam' and the envelope should be addressed to 'Her Majesty The Queen'.

3 For the US President address envelopes to the 'President of the United States of America' and start 'Mr President'.

Letters to Presidents of EU institutions

Envelop

Mr/Ms [name]
President of the [institution]

Start

Sir/Madam,

or Dear

Mr/Madam President,

Close

I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam,
Yours faithfully,

or just

Yours faithfully,

Letters to Secretaries-General

Envelop

Mr/Ms [name]
Secretary-General of the [...]

Start

Sir /Madam,

Close

I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam,
Yours faithfully,

or just

Yours faithfully,

Letters to the Pope

Envelop

His Holiness Pope Benedict XVI
Vatican City

Start

Your Holiness,

or

Most Holy Father,

Close

I have the honour to be/to remain,
Your Holiness's obedient servant,

Letters to Cardinals

Envelop

His Eminence Cardinal [name]
Archbishop of [...]1

Start

Your Eminence,

or

My Lord Cardinal,

or

Dear Cardinal [name],

Close

I remain,
Your Eminence/My Lord Cardinal,
Yours faithfully,

or just

Yours sincerely,

Letters to Archbishops

Envelop

His Grace the Archbishop of [...]

or

The most Reverend Archbishop [name]2

Start

Your Grace,

or

My Lord Archbishop,

or

Dear [Lord] Archbishop,

Close

I remain,
Your Grace,
Yours faithfully,

or just

Yours sincerely,

Letters to Bishops

Envelop

His Lordship the Bishop of [...]

or

The Right/Most³ Reverend [name],
Bishop of [...]

Start

My Lord,

or

My Lord Bishop,

or

Dear Bishop [with or without name],

Close

I remain,
My Lord [Bishop],
Yours faithfully,

or just

Yours sincerely,

1 If appointed to a See.

2 The Archbishops of Canterbury and York are Privy Counsellors. Address envelopes to 'The most Rev and Right Hon the Lord Archbishop of Canterbury/York'.

3 Bishops are styled 'Right Reverend', except in Ireland where they are styled 'Most Reverend'.

About the editor

Nicolae Sfetcu

Owner and manager with MultiMedia SRL and MultiMedia Publishing House.

Project Coordinator for European Teleworking Development Romania (ETD)

Member of Rotary Club Bucuresti Atheneum

Cofounder and ex-president of the Mehedinti Branch of Romanian Association for Electronic Industry and Software

Initiator, cofounder and president of Romanian Association for Telework and Teleactivities

Member of Internet Society

Initiator, cofounder and ex-president of Romanian Teleworking Society

Cofounder and ex-president of the Mehedinti Branch of the General Association of Engineers in Romania

Physicist engineer - Bachelor of Physics, Major Nuclear Physics. Master of Philosophy.

Contact

Email: nicolae@sfetcu.com

Facebook/Messenger: <https://www.facebook.com/nicolae.sfetcu>

Twitter: <http://twitter.com/nicolae>

LinkedIn: <http://www.linkedin.com/in/nicolaesfetcu>

YouTube: <https://www.youtube.com/c/NicolaeSfetcu>

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Email: office@multimedia.com.ro

MultiMedia: <http://www.multimedia.com.ro/>

Online Media: <https://www.telework.ro/>

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